40078

National Library of Canada | Bibliothèque nationale du Canada

CANADIAN THESES ON MICROFICHE | THÈSES CANADIENNES SUR MICROFICHE

NAME OF AUTHOR/*NOM DE L'AUTEUR* Norma Baichoo

TITLE OF THESIS/*TITRE DE LA THÈSE* Teacher Education: Guidelines for Nursery Schools in Guyana

UNIVERSITY/*UNIVERSITÉ* U of A.

DEGREE FOR WHICH THESIS WAS PRESENTED/ *GRADE POUR LEQUEL CETTE THÈSE FUT PRÉSENTÉE* M.Ed

YEAR THIS DEGREE CONFERRED/*ANNÉE D'OBTENTION DE CE GRADE* 1978

NAME OF SUPERVISOR/*NOM DU DIRECTEUR DE THÈSE* Dr S. Hessien

Permission is hereby granted to the NATIONAL LIBRARY OF CANADA to microfilm this thesis and to lend or sell copies of the film.

The author reserves other publication rights, and neither the thesis nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's written permission.

L'autorisation est, par la présente, accordée à la BIBLIOTHÈQUE NATIONALE DU CANADA de microfilmer cette thèse et de prêter ou de vendre des exemplaires du film.

L'auteur se réserve les autres droits de publication; ni la thèse ni de longs extraits de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans l'autorisation écrite de l'auteur.

DATED/*DATÉ* October 20, 78 SIGNED/*SIGNÉ* Norma Baichoo

PERMANENT ADDRESS/*RÉSIDENCE FIXE* Meten Meer Zorg.
West Coast Demerara
GUYANA S/AMERICA

NL-91 (3-78)

National Library of Canada

Cataloguing Branch
Canadian Theses Division

Ottawa, Canada
K1A 0N4

Bibliothèque nationale du Canada

Direction du catalogage
Division des thèses canadiennes

NOTICE

The quality of this microfiche is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original thesis submitted for microfilming. Every effort has been made to ensure the highest quality of reproduction possible.

If pages are missing, contact the university which granted the degree.

Some pages may have indistinct print especially if the original pages were typed with a poor typewriter ribbon or if the university sent us a poor photocopy.

Previously copyrighted materials (journal articles, published tests, etc.) are not filmed.

Reproduction in full or in part of this film is governed by the Canadian Copyright Act, R.S.C. 1970, c. C-30. Please read the authorization forms which accompany this thesis.

THIS DISSERTATION
HAS BEEN MICROFILMED
EXACTLY AS RECEIVED

AVIS

La qualité de cette microfiche dépend grandement de la qualité de la thèse soumise au microfilmage. Nous avons tout fait pour assurer une qualité supérieure de reproduction.

S'il manque des pages, veuillez communiquer avec l'université qui a conféré le grade.

La qualité d'impression de certaines pages peut laisser à désirer, surtout si les pages originales ont été dactylographiées à l'aide d'un ruban usé ou si l'université nous a fait parvenir une photocopie de mauvaise qualité.

Les documents qui font déjà l'objet d'un droit d'auteur (articles de revue, examens publiés, etc.) ne sont pas microfilmés.

La reproduction, même partielle, de ce microfilm est soumise à la Loi canadienne sur le droit d'auteur, SRC 1970, c. C-30. Veuillez prendre connaissance des formules d'autorisation qui accompagnent cette thèse.

LA THÈSE A ÉTÉ
MICROFILMÉE TELLE QUE
NOUS L'AVONS REÇUE

NL-339 (3/77)

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

TEACHER EDUCATION: GUIDELINES FOR NURSERY SCHOOLS IN GUYANA

by

© NORMA A. W. BAICHOO

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES

AND RESEARCH IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE

REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

MASTER OF EDUCATION

IN

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

FALL, 1978

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled Teacher Education: Guidelines for Nursery Schools in Guyana submitted by Norma A. W. Baichoo in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education in Early Childhood Education.

Susan Kerner
Supervisor

W. W. Laing

Clement Lugg

Date October 6, 1978.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to assemble information on teacher education from which a description could be generated to guide the planning for preparation of teachers for nursery school teaching in Guyana.

The first task was to look at the education system in Guyana to identify the form which nursery school teaching took prior to 1976 and to examine the new directions since 1976 after the nursery school program came under the control of the government. New patterns of educating young children have begun to emerge. Modern ways which research has suggested to be effective for early schooling, have been adopted. As a consequence of this development, new challenges and new perspectives are developing. But the problem faced is the lack of trained teachers to do the job.

Because the first few years of the child's life are vitally important in determining his life characteristics and habits, then it is imperative that he begin his education with worthwhile experiences. Teachers of these children, should therefore be trained to assist the child to achieve this end.

This study is a combination of an account based on original sources and a summary of reported studies in the area of teacher education. Texts and other writings relating to teacher education constitute the sources for the thinking in this area. Statements of indivi-

duals, symposiums, committee reports are the sources for thinking about the purposes of teacher education. The research relating to teacher education includes some historical studies but a considerable portion of it consists of studies of the survey type.

The thesis examines the issues in teacher education as they apply to modern Guyana. The main purpose was to provide information which might assist planners and administrators who will influence the course of teacher education in Guyana.

... The quality of a nation depends upon the quality of its citizens. The quality of its citizens depends - not exclusively, but in critical measure - upon the quality of their education. The quality of their education depends, more than upon any other factor, upon the quality of their teachers.

... The quality of the teachers depends largely upon the quality of their own education, both that portion which precedes and that which comes after their entrance into the profession. It follows that the purpose and effectiveness of teacher education must be matters of profound social concern.

Teachers for our times, 1944.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The writer wishes to express her sincere appreciation to all those who assisted her in the preparation and completion of this study. Special thanks are extended to:

- Dr. Susan Therrien, for her advice and direction throughout the development of the study and more particularly in its early stages;

- Dr. Wilma Laing, whose guidance and contribution helped to develop the study to its final form;

- Dr. Clement King, for his helpful suggestions and comforting words which helped very much to ease the tension that was being built up in the latter stage of the study.

A particular note of appreciation is extended to Dr. Pat McFetridge and Professor Janis Blakey for their moral support; to my friends and colleagues whose thoughtfulness was a source of support to me throughout my studies, especially Nathan and Gwenda Pottinger, and Berwyn and Eirwen Griffith.

Most of all, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my parents Mr. and Mrs. Jonathan Exter and my sister Joycelyn, for their support, encouragement and understanding throughout my stay in Canada. Last but not least, to my children Barrington and Roslyn who still cherish a mother's love even in her absence during their early childhood. To them I dedicate this thesis.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER		PAGE
I	AN OVERVIEW OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM IN GUYANA	1
	The Guyana Scene - Past and Present	1
	Educational Reform	3
	The New Educational Policies	8
	A Rationale for Nursery Schools	11
	Early Childhood Education and Early Schooling	13
	The Role of the Nursery School Teacher Redefined	20
	Purpose of Teacher Education	26
	Summary	27
II	PLANNING FOR A TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM	28
	Presage factors	29
	Process factors	31
	Product factors	33
	Summary	34
III	ISSUES IN DESIGNING A TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM	35
	Selection	35
	Role of personality	39
	Length of training	40
	Areas of study	45
	Academic disciplines	46

CHAPTER		PAGE
	Professional study	48
	Educational psychology	51
	Practice teaching	54
	Methodology	60
	The lecture	62
	The seminar	64
	Other groupings	65
	Discussion or participation	66
	Other methods	67
	Research	69
	Summary	72
IV	ISSUES IN THE TRAINING OF NURSERY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN GUYANA	74
	Developing a systematic framework	75
	Setting the stage: Goals and objectives	75
	Defining goals	75
	Purpose of the Guyana Nursery School program	76
	Goals of the Nursery program	77
	Establishing objectives	80
	Rationale for nursery school education program	80
	Implementing the program	81
	Selection practices	83

CHAPTER		PAGE
	Personality attributes	86
	Competencies for the teacher	88
	Program content	89
	Practicum	92
	The Practicum: Where?	93
	The Practicum: How often?	93
	Methodology	93
	Length of training	94
	The challenge of evaluation	95
	Summary	95
V	SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	97
	Summary	97
	Conclusions	98
	Recommendations	100

* * *

BIBLIOGRAPHY		104
APPENDIX A	TEN COMMANDMENTS FOR COOPERATING TEACHERS	120
APPENDIX B	METHODOLOGIES DISCUSSED	122
APPENDIX C	CHARACTERISTICS OF AN EFFECTIVE TEACHER	125
APPENDIX D	ORIENTATION AND IN-SERVICE EDUCATION PRACTISES	128

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
1	Map of Guyana	2
2	The educational system of Guyana	11
3	Focal points for teacher training and program development	82

CHAPTER I

AN OVERVIEW OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM IN GUYANA

The Guyana Scene - Past and Present

The Co-operative Republic of Guyana, with an area of 251,000 sq. km (83,000 sq. miles) and an estimated population of 794,384 (June, 1975) (see Figure 1), having gained its independence, has sought and is still seeking ways and means to bring about effective changes in its education system. Prior to the attainment of independence in 1966, education had been the responsibility of religious bodies and the state. But the nature of the education was not relevant to the situation the majority of Guyanese had to face. The subject matter was often too "foreign" for easy comprehension. Students were not prepared for the lives they had to live on leaving school. They were not equipped with the skills, attitudes and knowledge necessary for them to make substantial progress in the community.

The curriculum guides used in the schools were very narrow and restricted in outlook and in some respects ludicrously grotesque (UNESCO Report, 1962). Much of the learning was academic and those children without an aptitude for the academics suffered tremendously in the education process. Little or no scope was given to practical work and little attention, if any at all, was paid to the applicability of the knowledge gained to a local situation. This was in the colonial era when education was viewed as a one-way ticket into high status jobs and pos-

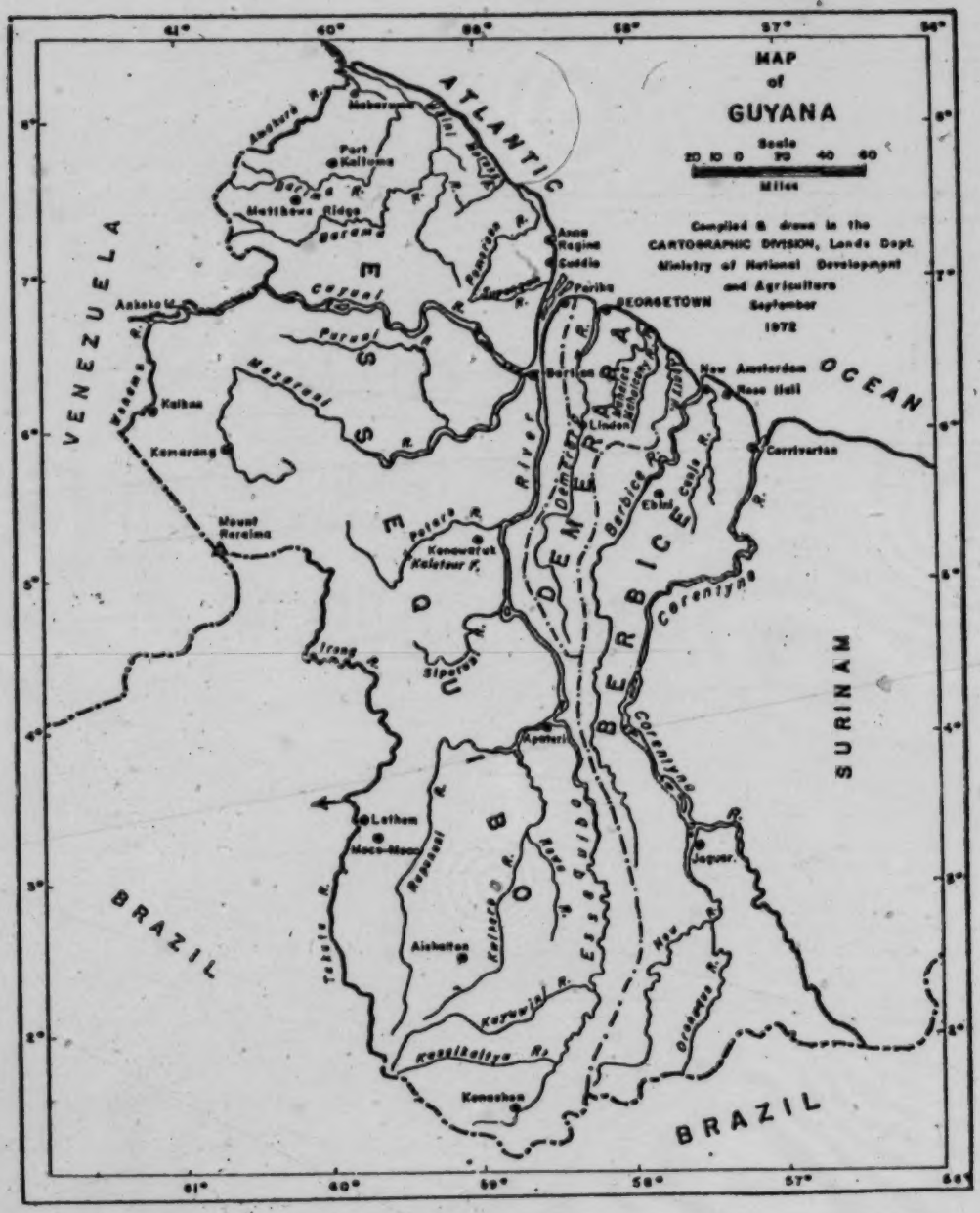

Figure 1
Map of Guyana

Source: Government of Guyana: Gazetteer of Guyana (1974)

sibly urban employment. As a consequence there was a growing supply of job-seekers for high status positions and the limits of the number of openings led to rising frustration and disillusionment due to the nature of the education. In view of the fiscal realities, this pattern of irrelevant education was thought to be futile and did not prepare youths for the kinds of jobs that were available. This led to large-scale planning with specific objectives for education as well as training to meet the intended student outcomes.

In The Report of the UNESCO Educational Survey Mission to Guyana in 1962, it was pointed out that "the curriculum (should be) based on learning experiences rather than being subject-centered" (p. 46). The onus of this new trend rested upon the head teacher (principal) who had, for example:

> ... to study his district and find out what are the educational shortages. If it is an agricultural district and the people know nothing about scientific agriculture, then it is his duty to fulfill the educational shortage by including agriculture in the curriculum. (p. 46)

The change from education in a vacuum to a realistic form was a remarkable one. The scope and content of the work of the school had a distinct bearing on the kind of environment which the school served.

Educational Reform

When Guyana gained its full internal self-government, an entirely new attitude towards education came into being. The report of the

UNESCO Educational Survey Mission in 1962 explained that the Ministry of Education and Social Development was dissatisfied with the structure and nature and quality of education in Guyana. Since the newly formed government had a "political philosophy which fundamentally inspired social and education development policies, it sped to make known its aims in this field" (p. 35).

The final draft of the "White Paper" on Educational Policy incorporated suggestions made by the mission and in the opening paragraph sets the theme of the paper which is the key to the educational philosophy of the government. It states:

> The government aims at promoting a national system of education which will provide all Guyanese with the opportunity of developing their educational and personal potential and in sharing in all the educational facilities available regardless of race, religion or economic circumstances. (pp. 35-36)

In the educational reform, the government declared its faith in the vital role education must play in the economic and social advancement of the country (UNESCO Report, 1962). The encompassing socialist philosophy of the government is given as the main argument for equal educational opportunities which produce a more fluid social structure and prevent class stratification. The White Paper further

outlined the system for which the proposed structure would embrace from nursery to adult community education.

In attempting to take on the total control of education in Guyana, the government committed itself to providing universal free education for all in order to correct the situation in which children over the years had been receiving inadequate education at various tiers in the education system. To acquire a "good" education had meant paying a fee and this type of education was obtained by a privileged few. This paralleled the social class structure of the society. Jones (1977a) describes the situation as follows:

> These schools were usually well-equipped, providing a pleasant learning environment and attracted a clientele comprising children of professionals, managerial and administrative workers, and a few other individuals who valued quality education and were willing to make a sacrifice to enable their children to benefit from the atmosphere and the learning experiences provided by these schools. At the other end of the scale, children of the poor or less ambitious attended "schools" in dark bottom-houses, etc. and were taught mainly by unqualified and in some cases uneducated persons who often exposed them to the type of experiences which developed negative social and educational responses. Children leaving these schools to enter the formal

> school system had to unlearn much of the "knowledge" which they had acquired during the pre-school years. (p. 1)

With the implementation of the new system, this iniquitious practice was removed. Jones (1977a) points out how children from homes that are deficient in cultural and intellectual stimulation benefited from creative programs of experiences in the schools. Enriched and stimulating environments were provided and parents were educated in co-learning situations along with personnel that were directly involved in the program to show sincere concern for the needs of children of nursery age.

In attempting to bring about a change in the education system, proponents of the changes realized that the role of education had to be redefined. Education became an instrument of national policy and its function as a major agent of change is recognized. The Constitution Amendment Bill, No. 12 of 1976 includes a number of pertinent statements concerning the change:

> ... in Guyana today an attempt (is made) by the government to so redefine and modify the laws regarding the responsibility for education ... devise educational strategies which will meet changing human and societal needs ... remove the constitutional right of church bodies to establish educational institutions but is not intended to in-

terfere with the right of such bodies to establish institutions for purely religious (activities) purposes. (p. 1)

In a revolutionary situation, government's control of education is very crucial. (p. 2)

Government's determination to control and own the total educational apparatus is propelled by the compelling need to proceed even further in the restructuring and the refinement of the education system through which our own revolution will be accomplished. (p. 2)

... the Ministry of Education [be enabled] to play its proper role in providing more and better educational facilities which have the potential to develop in Guyanese, patterns of behavior, in keeping with the educational values identified as basic in nation building. (p. 3)

[There would be] free and continuous education for all from nursery level to university level. (p. 4)

... nursery school education will take our children through a process of training in which he will learn to find satisfaction within the social order specific to Guyana, to become a useful member of society, to contribute to it and to ensure its development. (p. 8)

From these statements, it is evident that as one moves away from the traditional organization in a dynamic society, values and techniques gradually take on a change in perspective.

The New Educational Policies

The changes in the education system in Guyana today have brought about (a) a shift in the power source i.e. the new power source has shifted from colonialism to socialism; (b) a shift in the balance of knowledge; and (c) drastic shifts into the nature of things from current practices to (innovative) modern ones. As educationalists seek to remove the schisms in education, a much wider conception of education than had been customary is foreseen. When an attempt is made to look at the present situation in relation to future needs, removal of this division should be realized. It is the government's task therefore, to launch a radical attack on the "diseases" of the society that created chaotic conditions under which people had to learn. As one solution to the problem, the government has attempted to create a society where there is equality of opportunity for all in education.

In a candid speech to Parliament, the Minister of Education stated that changes would take place within the education system of the Co-operative Republic of Guyana. With respect to the role of education, the Minister said:

> If we accept a functional role of education, then a logical plan for action will be to provide our children

> and adults alike, with the kind of educational experience that will develop material and human resources for the benefit of Guyanese. (Baird, 1972, p. 4)

It was further pointed out by the Minister that

> In the context of Guyana, development is articulated in terms of government's proposals for transforming the country into a self-reliant nation and it is to this end, that Guyana's educational system is being restructured. In accepting the concept of self-reliance, Guyana has accepted that educational experience which we provide must be relevant to our national aspirations for economic, social and human development ... In the light of new demands on education, Guyana now relies on the experience derived from schools and other learning institutions to provide basic preparation in skills and attitudes to service a whole range of occupations ... we expect education to remove a major deficiency of educational exposure offered in the past, that is, that of providing the young with meaningful experiences. (Excerpts from a speech made in Parliament by the Minister of Education, 1972.)

While the proposal for change is focused on education in general, the emphasis applies more particularly to education at the nursery level

so as to train young Guyanese to be self-disciplined and productive in a co-operative society (Bowen, 1977b).

The teaching approach, too, has come under scrutiny. Baird (1972) points out that the teaching procedures adopted in general should reflect a sequence of teaching behaviors in which teachers

(a) present information or transmit skills;

(b) create opportunities for learners to apply information and skills to actual situations;

(c) interpret the total experience derived from knowledge acquired from learning skills and applying them in practical situations so that learners can benefit from their total school experiences and later in their adult life of work. (pp. 20-21)

In keeping with the new system that aims at overcoming the deficiencies and dysfunctionalities inherited from the past education system, the intent of the government, is to produce citizens who can make vital contributions to the economic, and social development of the country.

Rationale for Nursery Schools

As shown in Figure 2, the nursery school education program in Guyana has now fallen under the direct responsibility of the government. Prior to this, education for preschoolers was provided by local authorities and private individuals. In keeping with its commitment to provide free education at all levels of the education system, the education of children below primary school admission age was amalgamated into

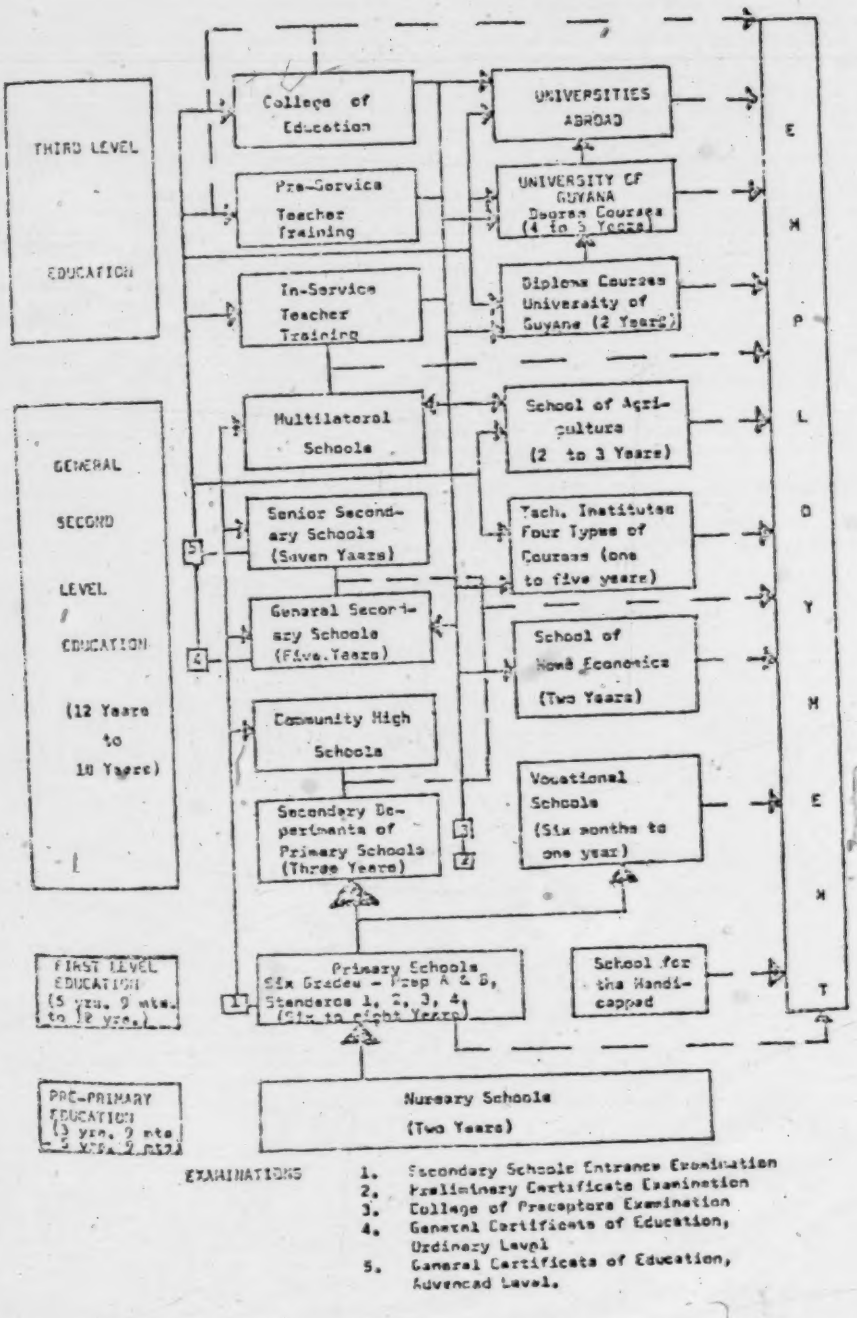
THIRD LEVEL EDUCATION
College of Education
Pre-Service Teacher training
In-Service Teacher Training
UNIVERSITIES ABROAD
UNIVERSITY OF GUYANA Degree Courses (4 to 5 Years)
Diploma Courses University of Guyana (2 Years)
GENERAL SECOND LEVEL EDUCATION (12 Years to 10 Years)
Multilateral Schools
Senior Secondary Schools (Seven Years)
General Secondary Schools (Five Years)
Community High Schools
Secondary Departments of Primary Schools (Three Years)
School of Agriculture (2 to 3 Years)
Tech. Institutes Four Types of Courses (one to five years)
School of Home Economics (Two Years)
Vocational Schools (Six months to one year)
FIRST LEVEL EDUCATION (5 yrs. 9 mths. to 12 yrs.)
Primary Schools Six Grades - Prep A & B, Standards 1, 2, 3, 4 (Six to eight Years)
School for the Handicapped
PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION (3 yrs. 9 mths - 5 yrs. 9 mths)
Nursery Schools (Two Years)
EXAMINATIONS
1. Secondary Schools Entrance Examination
2. Preliminary Certificate Examination
3. College of Preceptors Examination
4. General Certificate of Education, Ordinary Level
5. General Certificate of Education, Advanced Level.

FIGURE 2.
The Educational System of Guyana
Source: The Ministry of Education, Guyana (1976)

the formal education system. This came into effect on September 13, 1976.

Nursery school education in the context of the Guyanese education system caters for the all round development of children between the ages of 3 years 9 months and 5 years 9 months because "the period between three and five years is the most advantageous time to influence academic development, and psycho-social behavior in positive directions" (Bill No. 12, 1976, p. 7). The kind of nursery school education advocated is that which will provide "a sound foundation for the development of abilities, attitudes and qualities which will enable a child to become a part of the society in which he grows" (Bill No. 12, 1976, p. 7).

According to Baird (1976), the teachers' responsibilities during the child's socialization process would include the creation of a new Guyanese person. Baird (1976), describing the new role of the teacher of the young points out that the teacher would have to display behaviors which must coincide with the values cherished by Guyana - e.g. unity, self-reliance, co-operative action, love of country, creativity and concern for, and acceptance of others, regardless of ethnic origin and social background. To do this, the activities planned for nursery school education must have the potential to promote patriotism, to give opportunity for self-initiated activities, to develop in the young, confidence and a healthy concept of self, to emphasize group effort among children, among teachers, between children and teachers, between

teachers, parents and community. In addition to these desirable attitudes, the socialization process must prepare children to develop a healthy curiosity about things around, a desire to seek solutions to problems rather than to avoid them, and a determination to persist in the face of difficulties and constraints (Baird, 1976, pp. 8-9).

While the socialization process is important, the total development of the child is not to be neglected. As Almy (1975) explains, "the physical, mental, emotional, and social development of the child cannot be divorced from each other" (p. 50). This implies that whatever experiences are provided for the child, all aspects of his development must be considered.

As society changes, new problems arise and new solutions are sought. Programs and emphases change too, as a result.

Early Childhood Education and Early Schooling

Events of the past years have made the early education of the young, the target of reform. The young child's future is of much concern to educationists in Guyana. Negligence that existed in the education system is now brought to light with the intention of creating new hopes for young children. Earlier in the chapter, it was pointed out that the takeover of education by the government of Guyana has caused the nursery schools to come under its control. With this change, concern of education for the young child rests not only with the parents but with the state, as well.

The entire citizenry now looks upon the child as worthy of

national concern: his needs for quality care and education can no longer be ignored. Research in human development has indicated clearly that the child's early years of life are the period of most rapid physical and intellectual growth and are of extreme importance as the basis for later development (Bloom, 1964). In recent years, much has been done in terms of research in the area of child development and early childhood education. As a result, increasing attention has been drawn to the importance of preschool experiences in relation to later educational progress of children (Butler, 1971, p. 5). There has been widespread acceptance that the first four or five years of a child's life are the period of most rapid growth in physical and intellectual characteristics and of greater susceptibility to environmental influences (Butler, 1971, p. 5).

Bloom's (1964) synthesis of 1,000 research studies revealed the early years are significant for intellectual growth. In his summary of these studies the following conclusions were drawn:

> Put in terms of intelligence measured at age 17, from conception to age 4, the individual develops 50% of his mature intelligence, from ages 4 to 8 he develops another 30%, and from ages 8-17 the remaining 20%. (p. 88)

Based on his findings, Bloom points out three reasons why early stimulation is important. The early environment is important because it shapes the rapid growth of selected characteristics in their most

rapid periods of formation; development in the early years provides the base upon which later development depends; and it is much easier to learn something new than it is to stamp out one set of learned behaviors and replace them by a new set. Just like Bloom, other researchers, writers and scholars point to the fact that stimulation in the early years provides the foundation for later development.

While much is said and written about early childhood education and early schooling, attention should be directed to the extent of early schooling that is planned for young children. It should be borne in mind that if young children are exposed to an academic-oriented program too early in their lives little or no success can be attained. If, however, the concept of early schooling is to expose the child to learning activities of an informal type comparable to his age and maturation level, then such training can lay the foundation for basic skills to be built.

Rohwer's (1972) anti-approach to early schooling shows that in the research he did, he found that "young children find concept learning and tasks that require a combination of manipulation of concepts to be extraordinary demanding" (p. 1). The kind of education for pre-school-aged children should be of the kind that does not demand this. Children must be able to work with materials that sensitize them to the world around, developing their capacities to observe, to notice similarities and disparate objects and to differentiate qualities and details. All this can be learned in an informal situation otherwise known as "play".

The term "early schooling" implies an overemphasis on the teaching of academic skills together with the idea that programs for young children will be oriented toward academic skill acquisition. This is a far-cry from what is proposed for early schooling within a Guyana context. In the pre-independence era, the belief was that highly structured, mechanical and rigid practices in teaching were superior to those that were flexible and child-experience oriented. This practice was aimed at speeding-up the learning potential in children. Obviously, young children who could not cope with this approach often began formal schooling frustrated.

What then are the changes in the new education system? Jones (1977a) commenting about the education of children roughly between the ages of 3 and 7, states:

> These early years are of vital importance, for it seems ... more emphasis is being placed on later achievement.... I wish to stress that education means much more than academic success ... that careful consideration must be given to the planning of programs for nursery school ... since these are the years when the child's learning needs are greatest. (pp. 1-2)

She also contends that for a new Guyana person to emerge the opportunity must come (early) since irreparable damage may be done during the period of nursery education (p. 1). It is assumed that varying

levels of educational provision may lead to variations in the quality of education at this early stage. Therefore the developmental tasks to be accomplished in the Guyana nursery schools are defined as follows:

> [The child] needs to grow in understanding himself, to develop as a person; he needs to make satisfying relationships with other people both adults and children; he needs to understand the world around him; ... he needs to use his developing ability to think and communicate with other people ... he has to be prepared to live in a changing world and particularly within our Co-operative, Socialist Republic. (Jones, 1977a, p. 2)

To achieve this goal, an explanation of what is basic in the early childhood education program is necessary. Jones (1977a), describes the environment in which young Guyanese children should be educated as follows:

> The environment ... should reflect the teacher's awareness of the [child's] needs and of the way in which children learn ... when the child is learning to adjust himself to life outside of his own home, and to the company of children and adults, the environment must be as attractive and homelike as possible. It must have all the characteristics of a good home ... where there are people who help him to feel accepted

> and secure.... A child who feels insecure will not progress normally in establishing a relationship with the teacher and with other children and so may be held back intellectually. (pp. 2-4)

Bowen (1977a) claims that "certain factors in our society (institutionalization of work, technical advances, economic increases, etc.) have tended to lessen the time adults spent with their children" (p. 10). In the socialization process, the family occupies the key position for influencing the child's subsequent social relationships. Schools too can be supportive of this and help to bridge the gap between the environment of the home and the school, and provide the warmth, nurturance and responsiveness necessary in the learning process (Gordon, 1972).

The kind of growth envisaged and described by Jones in the preceding paragraphs can only occur in situations where the atmosphere is warm and open and in which adults like, respect and relate positively to children. Steps from the home into the school environment should be gradual; if the program is flexible and responsive to children, most of them can benefit from it.

In light of the discussions above, one's attention is turned toward the expectations as a result of early education. Hunter (1973) summarizes these as follows:

1. In a rich educational environment, the (young child) can increase his awareness of who he is and what he can become. Through observing and working and playing with others not members of his

immediate family, he further develops his abilities and his identity. With professional adult and peer interaction, he can acquire new skills as well as interests, different from those typical to his household. There, he also can learn the meaning of cooperation, tolerance and compassion, as well as learn to insist on his own right to these behaviors from others. With such interaction, the probability increases for such outcomes as positive mental health, a wholesome realistic self-concept, and productive human relations.

2. The young learner can be helped to develop the intellectual precision and artistry our society demands. He can sharpen his perceptions from every sensory mode. He can become a member of a group engaged in thoughtful discussion of a real problem where he can learn to listen so he hears accurately. He also can learn to think and speak coherently so that what he says is what he means.

3. In this educative environment, many health and nutrition problems can be intercepted and/or prevented. A nation can "get at" these problems before they become irreversible or incapacitating. Physical resilience, robustness and productivity become goals that are more systematically and predictably achieved. A child's body image and his movement skills, which are just now emerging from research as being critically important, can be developed and extended.

4. While working on the development of all facets of his potential, the young learner can benefit from assistance in getting ready for more demanding academic learning. He can develop facility

in language, agility and discrimination in hearing, deliberation in attending, power in focus--develop "learning muscles" that will be capable of carrying his "learning loads" throughout life. In short, he can learn how to learn. Most youngsters can come to master any basic school tasks if they are not allowed to fail as they begin.

5. An early childhood program can also help children be more effective producers and consumers of the arts. Convergent and divergent responses, conforming and creative behavior, all are essential for the fully satisfying productive life. (pp. 406-407)

Weber (1973) examines the function of early childhood education and says that "[it] is supported by the belief that optimum human development requires supportive and enriching physical and psychological environments as early as possible" (p. 265), and that "education for the early years of a child's life came into being as a means of supporting and enriching his optimum growth" (p. 265).

The Role of the Nursery School Teacher Redefined

The teacher of the "new" nursery school has a role that is more demanding than before. A comment made by Bowen (1977c) reveals the importance of the nursery school teacher in the socialization process. She explains that Guyana can "develop the future society it wants by the kinds of teachers, climate and programs it arranges for its nursery school children" (p. 1). Her reason for this pronouncement is that

> since the quality of any society is determined to a large extent by the way it prepares its children and

> provides for their adult life, then the nursery school cannot be seen as isolated or separate from other educational institutions in its objectives, behavioral outcomes and educational status. (p. 1)

At a time when changes are taking place and affecting society, the role of the teacher has to be redefined. The teacher has to adapt to the changes that are considered to be necessary for the betterment of the country. Elvin (1974) claims that "schools are not really the prime movers in the changing of society [but] they are immensely important as consolidations of change" (p. 14). This may be one reason why so much is expected of the schools in the change process. The underlying belief is that teachers can make the difference and by starting with the young, the chances of creating a new society is firm. Since schools are indispensible in the initiation stages of rapid change (i.e. things that society feels to be most valuable) "school systems and the majority of their teachers, are bound to be closely linked with the established order ... and it would be unrealistic to expect otherwise" (Elvin, 1974, p. 15). But schools are not the only responsible agency for initiation into society.

Despite the plan of the Guyana government to provide equal opportunity for all children, the problem that concerns them most is the lack of trained people to carry on the task. Jones (1977b) describes the situation: "most of our teachers have 'played-school' for

years in the childish fashion, seating their pupils in rows before them, encouraging chanting and rote repetition and whipping the slow or the forgetful" (p. 2). She further draws attention to the fact that

> ... we now need a new type of teacher ... to undergo a change of heart and attitude, for many have become complacent through working for years in a situation where the home provided more than fifty per cent of the education, leaving the school to be concerned merely with hastening the child's formal education ... teachers will have to learn to respond to a variety of types of children and their parents. They will need to be more concerned about the total development of their pupils. (Jones, 1977b, p. 2)

The Report of the UNESCO Educational Mission in 1962 pointed out the lack of enough trained personnel in the teaching force and recommended that "the country must train its teachers." It was stated that the country

> ... needs better educated and better trained teachers for all levels of education - this is not to imply that there are none such at the moment; on the contrary it has a number of gifted teachers, but not enough. The need is therefore the education and training of teachers for: (a) the expanded and expanding school system; (b) the more specialized work required at

> some levels of the system; and (c) the skilled and specialized work required by certain types of educational courses. (pp. 82-83)

On the basis of these findings, it was also reported that "if equal opportunities are to be provided for all children, there must be a fairer distribution of trained staff" (p. 86). The discrepancies in the schools were also noted and rough estimation of the distribution of trained teachers in the schools were given as "7 out of 8 teachers are trained" in some schools as opposed to "3 out of 17" in others. The need for better and trained teachers is obvious. While this report is a result of a survey of practices in the elementary and secondary schools, no attention was given to the malpractices that occurred at the lower end of the scale. Nursery schools then were separate entities and the concern of the child's educational requirements only began when he entered the public school system at five plus.

It is quite conceivable why so much concern now exists in providing adequate training for the children and teachers alike. Bowen (1977b) cites some of the malpractices that occurred before the nursery school education program came under the control of the government. She gives the following reasons for schools failing:

1. Teachers lack the knowledge and understanding of how children develop and learn.

2. As a consequence of (1) the curriculum, materials that are used, and the activities that are arranged for their pupils are often

not relevant to their needs or level of development.

3. The experiences of the school are too far removed from the child's world - his home, his environment - neighborhood, interests, etc.

4. As a result, school experiences tend to be unpleasant (i.e., children fail) and they tend to develop a dislike for school.

5. The characteristics of teachers, such as their level of competence, their teaching style, their negative attitudes toward their jobs and their general lack of professionalism all profoundly affect children's attitudes towards school and their success or failure in school.

It is no wonder that much emphasis is being placed on the preparation of teachers to perform successfully in the schools. Preparation is taking place extensively in workshops, seminars, in-service training, at the College of Education, The University of Guyana and in other forms for professional development.

The changes that are taking place in nursery school education in Guyana are necessary. Bowen (1977b) states that

> ... if we are to create the new Guyana person, who is self-reliant, who contributes in his or her own way to the betterment of Guyana, and who becomes a fulfilled citizen in the process, then it is the responsibility of the nursery school teachers to help each child achieve these goals. (p. 8)

It seems then, that to meet the criteria set out by Bowen, a competent

staff of teachers should be responsible for guiding the children through the educative process. Butler (1970) suggests that those who supervise and direct young children in the teaching process should have the necessary training to do so. She sums up the requirements as having

> ... completed a program of professional training in the area of early childhood education - one that includes work in child growth and development, early childhood curriculum, and supervised teaching experiences with children under 6 years of age. (p. 63)

With this knowledge, teachers would be in a better position to help the child gain awareness of what he is learning and at the same time respect his integrity to learn in his own way.

To be an effective teacher with young children certain qualities are demanded. These Jones (1977b) identifies as:

> a facilitator ... an alive person, imaginative, well-educated ... awake to interest ... [be able to] develop the potentialities of the preschool and early primary school child ... [be able to] shape the children's future attitudes and values ... [be able to] help children to think, to be independent and to understand themselves. (p. 7)

Bowen (1977c) describes the role of the nursery school teacher as (a) bridging the gap between the child's home exper-

> iences and the experiences he is required to get in schools; (b) arranging activities for the child which take into account his level of intellectual functioning; (c) creating a relaxed and comfortable classroom environment which encourages and fosters creativity, curiosity and discovery; and finally (d) developing those professional skills and competencies that would make a more effective teacher. (p. 2)

Hargreaves (1972) in summarizing the teacher states that considerable flexibility and sensitivity are essential.

Purpose of Teacher Education

In Guyana, most recent developments indicate a radical departure from the current modes of education. The education system has been fundamentally revised to face the present situation. The initial school education system, that was modelled to a great extent upon the British system, was transplanted to Guyana without much concern for the actual needs of the country. The new system brings the school closer to life and as a result it has changed the orientation and content of the curriculum.

As social contexts change, the role of the teacher changes as well. Teaching is now rooted in the culture and as such there is a clamor for more teachers for the real world. Teachers have to become more sensitive to social changes and develop willingness to ad- what is judged to be the demands of a rapidly changing society.

As proponents for change struggle to readjust the education system, the teachers of the new system have to be trained.

Summary

This study set out to determine the nature of teacher education considered important in the changing society of Guyana, and to examine aspects of early childhood education as it relates to Guyana's nursery schools. It has been pointed out that there is considerable work to be done in teacher education for preschools. The kind of teacher education necessary for preschool teachers needs to be discussed. Therefore, the succeeding chapters will provide a review of the literature that includes expert opinions and research findings concerning preschool training and on specific training programs. An examination of the major issues in teacher education will be done to show their relevance to a training program for nursery school teachers in Guyana.

CHAPTER II

PLANNING FOR A TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM

Chapter I presented an overview of the education system in Guyana and explained why a radical change was necessary in the system of education offered to the Guyanese people. As a result of these changes, cultural values, social structures and social processes were given new perspectives. Even the process of acquisition of knowledge was altered.

The process of acquiring knowledge has been modified as well as the teaching procedures, and the teacher's role has been redefined. The school is now seen as an institution where ways and means to learn take priority over mere transmission of knowledge.

As the focus of education takes on new dimensions, the chief problem faced in Guyana is the lack of trained persons to carry on the task, especially in the lower strata of the education system. To bring about these changes, authorities in the field of education have turned their attention at providing the necessary training for teachers.

As the nature of teacher education receives new treatment, the design of programs for teacher education becomes more important. Teacher education, however, can best be defined from the role the teacher is expected to play in the society being served. Knowledge about the expectations of the teacher in a changing society makes it possible to arrive at some measure of understanding the dynamics of

its teacher education program.

This chapter will lay the conceptual groundwork upon which a teacher education program can be based and for the most part, reflect upon Clarke's (1971) findings. The latter will be used to point out the salient features which might be considered in planning a program for the training of teachers in Guyana.

Teacher education is viewed as the professional preparation of teachers. Clarke (1971) states that "the preparation of teachers is logically determined by the nature of the teaching tasks for which they are being prepared" (p. 119). In addition, the program should provide teachers who "would fit the changed and changing circumstances of the learner of the future. On a broader level ... (it must) develop teachers who (are) ... institution builders, interactive teachers, innovators, and scholars" (p. 122).

Having made a survey of teacher training models, Clarke (1971) identifies three stages that make up the total training procedure. These factors he labelled as presage, process, and product factors.

Presage Factors

This stage is crucial in the shaping of a teacher education program. Of concern at this stage are the decisions that are to be made regarding the design of the program and which decisions will determine its development. In the review of a number of programs, Clarke found that "none of the teacher education designs and programs developed during the last half of the 1960's proposed to prepare teachers

for education as it is. All looked to the future - but to varying extents" (p. 122). The reason given for this approach is that "at a time of rapid change ... the present is seen very much as the extrapolation of the past and ... that the future will be an extrapolation of the present" (Ross, 1974, p. 60).

In the presage stage of developing a program for the education of teachers, six factors were identified. These were:

1. Content. This refers to what the nature of the content of the program would be like (assuming change). Planners therefore, must anticipate the future and prepare teachers for this context.

2. Cybernation. This refers to the ways of dealing with change in any program. A program designed to train teachers should prepare them to adjust to society a "decade ahead." Certain characteristics should be developed to enable teachers to be more flexible, sensitive, and act in a self-corrective way. Teachers with these characteristics would be able to modify teaching insofar as it is modifiable, and beyond that adapt to its changes. The training then, that teachers will receive should help them to play a major role in shaping the changes envisaged for future education.

3. Extent of lead. In its simplest form, the extent of lead refers to the time element that is projected in the program; that is, for one-year, five-year, ten-year look-- or even longer into the future. A program of teacher education has to look at the gap between what exists and what is deemed ought to exist, or some combination of these.

The futures-orientation in teaching affects the choice of content. As for example, "new subjects, or what some may regard as non-subjects emerge (as in the case of Guyana, practical work in agriculture for all, which is designed to portray the socialist view that there is 'dignity in labor'); subjects are interwoven; a wider range of activities is developed and pursuits once thought quite unacceptable are now part of the curriculum" (Ross, 1974, p. 61).

4. Control. This is simply 'who decides what' is to be included in the program. It is largely the concern of individuals or groups who design the program.

5. Boundaries. Decisions made here determine what should be emphasized in terms of general education, subject matter and related disciplines, and how they should be integrated into the program. It also includes decisions about whether non-instructional tasks should be included. A decision is also made as to whether teacher education should be conducted solely in an institutional setting.

6. Selection. The selection of candidates for a program determines the program which is to be developed.

Process Factors

From the programs Clarke (1971) reviewed, he established five process factors. These are:

1. Dimensions. At this stage, planners identify performance criteria, examine the requirements and specified materials needed, as well as the treatments necessary in order to produce the perfor-

mances expected of the candidates.

2. Extent of individualization. This refers to the methodologies used in the program. All of the models reviewed showed a major trend toward flexibility within the model. Three program factors which seemed to encourage this flexibility were: (a) performance demonstrated, (b) differential emphasis for different individuals, and (c) self-selection of program components by the students.

3. Graduated conceptualization-practice. This consists of simulation exercises, analysis of teaching, tutoring, and micro-teaching which lead up to practice teaching.

4. Support systems. This is a means of keeping track of the students progress throughout the program.

5. Task-centered curriculum. This consists of a program of experience designed for teachers in training. Emphasis was found to be placed on task analysis, task specification, required behaviors, treatments designed to develop these behaviors, and an assessment of results in terms of the original analysis. According to Clarke (1971), the curriculum should cover the following five areas:

(1) an analytical study of teaching;

(2) structures and uses of knowledge;

(3) concepts of human development and learning;

(4) designs for teaching-learning; and

(5) demonstration and evaluation of teaching competencies.

Product Factors

In many of the models reviewed, it was found that evaluation and feedback played an important part in the process of teacher education. Product as described here, distinguishes between evaluation and feedback on the process of teacher education (i.e. the pre-service phase), and evaluation and feedback from the product of teacher education (i.e. the in-service phase). In the former, evaluation and feedback calls for an appraisal of what changes have been made as well as what changes still need to be made; whereas the latter calls for an appraisal of the program in light of the candidates performance in the field. The overall picture is that education should be systematically evaluated. For a program to be effective, planning alone is inadequate. To be able to forecast how teachers will behave in the future and know what changes need to be made in the program are all part of the organization of a teacher education program.

In referring to a report by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education in the 1967 issue of Standards, Clarke (1971) states that "no institution takes its commitment to prepare teachers seriously unless it tries to arrive at an honest evaluation of the quality of its graduates and those persons being recommended for professional certification" (p. 22). All the models that Clarke reviewed seem to stress that evaluation and feedback are important to maintain a distinction between teacher behavior and teacher effectiveness.

In brief, knowledge of the product factors are important in the

planning stage in order to produce teachers with the characteristics that must be measured in terms of what teachers do. The nature of the evaluation and feedback are of equal importance as they apply at the process stage as well as the product stage. Both help to determine the direction of the program thereby aiding its development.

Summary

Planning a program for teacher education is a highly complex task. A study of Clarke's findings is very helpful as it reviews the necessary elements that go in the production of a program for the education of teachers. Certainly, intellectual and long-range planning is necessary if a program is to be of benefit at all.

If a teacher education program is to be designed to fulfill societal responsibilities, then the first major step is to identify its objectives. The objectives should be clearly stated and definite because from them, specific procedures to attain them should develop. These procedures are outlined by Clarke (1971) and discussed in this chapter. In other words, effective planning involves selection, overall structure of the curriculum, methodology, and practice teaching. These would be discussed in greater detail in the next chapter.

CHAPTER III

ISSUES IN DESIGNING A TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM

The task of teaching is one of ministering to a process already in being (Combs, 1965). This process "in being" can be related as much as possible to teachers in training where the issues confronting teacher educators are many and complex. This chapter highlights selected issues by presenting what writers, educationists, and researchers say about them. The issues described here are limited in choice but exemplifies what Clarke (1971) explained in great detail as basic in the planning stages of a teacher education program.

This chapter in no way deals with all the issues. Only seven were chosen as these are pertinent in the implementation process. Where definitions are given, it is hoped that the reader will focus more concernedly on the issue under discussion. The literature reviewed consists of opinions and empirical data which serve as bases for decisions and actions in teacher education.

Selection

Selection as is discussed here, deals with the selection of candidates prior to entry into a teacher education program. In a review of the literature, several efforts to develop criteria for the selection of candidates suitable for the teaching profession have been made. No doubt, the institutions which prepare teachers for teaching must describe such criteria.

Haberman's (1974) guidelines for the selection of candidates in teacher education programs include the following:

1. College grades
2. English proficiency
3. Speech proficiency
4. Academic references
5. Direct experiences with children or youth
6. Character references
7. Direct interviews
8. Physical examination
9. "Why I want to teach" statements
10. Personality/attitude tests
11. High school grades
12. Police record
13. Loyalty oath.

He observes that "College grades are still the basic currency of admission ... Next come English and speech skills measured in terms of abstract usage norms rather than the question of 'the home language of children' or capacity to communicate clearly to the child" (p. 237). He also points out that in the selection process, "less than half the institutions regard direct experiences with children ... as a selection factor" and that "this is placed on the plane with academic references and direct interviews" (p. 237).

In 1974, Sinclair and Picogna conducted two surveys to deter-

mine how colleges select students. They addressed these to (a) the directors of teacher education and certification who were asked to identify techniques used to select candidates; and (b) individuals. From their replies, Sinclair and Picogna were able to extract six classifications of selection techniques. These were

1. G.P.A. (grade point average)
2. Interviews to assess "desire to teach" or commitment to teaching
3. Satisfactory physical or mental health
4. Evaluation of voice or appearance
5. Satisfactory completion of a course in communication or speech
6. Satisfactory personality or character.

Based on the study, Sinclair and Picogna concluded that if selection is too restrictive there may be too few students entering the teaching profession. They then turned their attention to the current teacher supply and demand situation and reported that

> ... where there is definite teacher shortage, schools of education accept virtually all applicants who present themselves. The rationale being, that anyone with the slightest potential for success as a teacher be allowed to enroll. (p. 542)

The matter of selection of teachers for training is of concern to those responsible for setting criteria for entry into the program.

As Sinclair and Picogna pointed out, "If the responsibility of the state is to provide schools with the best possible teachers, then teacher preparing institutions should study ... selection procedures" (p. 543).

There was a time when education played an important part in the upward mobility of families. It provided a way up for the sons and daughters of skilled workers, farmers, tradesmen, etc. via the Training Colleges and the pupil-teacher apprenticeship scheme (Taylor, 1969). Criteria for selection of those persons entering the teaching profession were geographical in origin (that is, a person was selected on the basis of a need for teachers to work in some areas), educational background, social background, and maturity. For certification, trainees had to show competence in subject matter.

Today, entry requirements are basically academic qualifications. In a report on teacher education in Ontario in 1966, it was suggested that more attention be given to personal qualifications as well, and that scrutiny should evolve through the employment of tests that measure aptitudes, personality, and I.Q. The question that arises is whether tests, or even interviews provide a sufficiently reliable basis for predicting the success or failure of prospective students. If, for example, one of the selective measures used is the interview, then those concerned should use objective criteria and not only depend upon the interviewer's insight, judgment and his conception of what constitutes the required qualifications for entry into the teaching profession. Therefore, a plan must be worked out collectively in devising

a method.

Another point of view raised about the selection of teachers is Hewitt's (1971). He claims that to safeguard the quality of persons entering the teaching profession, is to ensure that the recruits come from higher levels of intellectual ability and academic attainment. Failure to do this, would mean "that national aspirations in the field of education would have little hope for fulfillment" (p. 41).

Yet another viewpoint raised regarding the selection process is that of Schoen (1974) who reports that "teaching today requires creativity rather than conformity, a sense of adventure rather than a need for security, willingness to learn as well as the desire to teach" (Brief No. 10). Schoen (1974) further explains that accepting teachers on the basis of marks awarded in academic courses does not take sufficient account of these factors.

Role of Personality

Any program of teacher preparation should help a prospective teacher with his personality problems, because these may, and sometimes do, prevent the teacher from interacting effectively with pupils, peers, and other members of the community. One of the primary functions of the program should be to help the prospective teacher become part of his self-oriented feelings and attitudes and be able to cope with them. Training should include ways and means for the teacher to cope with feelings of his/her own limitations, the need to be liked, to be approved of by peers and pupils, feelings of inferiority, feelings of

insecurity, paranoid tendencies, suspicion and fear of pupils.

A teacher's self-concept and attitudes are believed to have an effect on his/her teaching (Almy 1975; Smith, Cohen, & Pearl, 1968; Yardley 1971). An expression of personality is a reflection of teaching style, that is a display of warmth, zeal, sensitivity, or authoritarianism becomes obvious. Adverse personality factors should not be used as a substitute for training, but if seen as a factor modifiable by instruction, it can become an important facet of teacher education.

The literature substantiates the view that there is a dichotomy concerning the role of personality in teaching. There are two approaches suggested from the reading: (a) specific training is needed to actually stamp out idiosyncratic aspects of behavior; and (b) provision of appropriate skills that enhances the personal style of the prospective teacher to make his style more effective.

The prospective teacher's attitudes and feelings are too important to leave out a discussion about them.

Length of Training

Factual statements regarding optimum length of time for the training of teachers are difficult to make. Justification of the time period attached to training depends on the nature of the program itself. The literature pertaining to the subject includes discussions about the favoring of short time for some programs and a longer time for the more extensive ones.

Often professional training consists of a combination of courses

on general education, specialized study and pedagogy. The argument that a long time is required to make optimum use of this training is well taken as much time is needed for the interchange of ideas and philosophy.

In 1966, at a conference on teacher education held in Ontario, problems seen by teacher educators included the appropriate length of the training period for teachers. Bennett (1966) made the following observation that the student in training would benefit from "a longer period of exposure to an intellectual, cultural, and social atmosphere" (p. 29). Because more knowledge of content and principles of the subjects of school curriculum seemed to be of vital importance, the general and professional education of teachers need time. If it is rushed or truncated it can only mean an ill-equipped profession and ill-educated children, therefore time is essential for the teacher to mature by living, instead of surviving by hurrying.

Jeffreys (1961), in looking at the training course offered at British institutions, observed that in the McNair report of 1944 a campaign had started to lengthen the course of training from two to three years. Reasons given for this are as follows:

> First, the schools need better educated men and women and this better education cannot be secured unless students are released from the strain and hurry which now conditions most of them. Secondly,

> students in general have not, by 20 years of age, reached a maturity equal to the responsibility of educating children and young people; and thirdly, we intend that a longer amount of time than at present should, during training, be devoted to contact with and teaching in the schools. (McNair Report, para. 204)

However, the McNair committee warned against the danger of using the longer course merely to add to the number of subjects which students were called upon to study.

In a subsequent report about the extent of training, Jeffreys (1961) states:

> ... the 3-year course will, however, provide sufficient study of teaching - method - in the main subjects studied and in a number of others which teachers will be required to teach.... The schools naturally want teachers who are adaptable in the sense of being able to teach a wide age-range of pupils and a variety of subjects. (p. 39)

In support of this view is Niblett et al (1975) who explain it this way:

> With the longer courses, it will be possible to send better educated teachers into the schools.... The 3-year course offers an opportunity to recast teacher

> training and to introduce into it more of the qualities of mature study. (p. 210)

Contrary to Niblett's view is Baker's (1966), who considers the limitation of time required for teachers for certification being two years, as inadequate. At a teacher education seminar held in Ottawa for faculty members from the various universities across Canada, he (Baker) explained that there is "sheer inadequacy of two academic years for the completion of the initial phase of pre-service education" (p. 14). The need for studies in arts and science as well as in education and the need for adequate teaching practice call for more time in order to give sufficient attention to the many important subject matters or else there would be imbalances in theory and practice.

Hollins (1971) raises another argument about the duration of training. He explains that if the time does not exceed one year, then such training "must be school-based" (p. 93), with plenty of opportunity for practice and the school teachers must be closely involved in it. The advantage cited for such training is that in this way "the professional preparation could be more specialized" (p. 93). But it can be argued whether one year gives enough time to cover the problems of teaching. Some writers have stated that one year of professional training is insufficient to prepare the beginning teacher. A learn-while-you-teach situation is created but this does not supply all the necessary information a teacher needs to know.

Miller (1970) looks at the training of the teacher for the future

and proposes that:

> ... in the preparation of teachers for the twenty-first century, there would be need for two years of broad, non-professional education which should constitute the freshman and sophomore years.... Toward this end, the first two years of undergraduate work should be exclusively liberal and fine arts and natural and physical sciences with the exception of one education course. (p. 278)

Yet, another and striking viewpoint is put forward by Denemark in 1962 which suggests that the extension of the training program beyond four years may be required because of awakened concern about the nature of knowledge for teachers. The expansion and enrichment of necessary knowledge for today's teachers need not simply be more subject matter, but an understanding of the methods of inquiry associated with that subject matter is of great concern. Other reasons involving the extension of the teacher preparation period are identified as "changing conceptions of the nature of teaching" (p. 164), and "changes in the role of the school that have brought about accompanying complexities in the task of the teacher" (p. 165).

One shortcoming of Denemark's suggestion is that he does not state specifically what this extension should be like. Instead he asks these questions:

1. Does extension mean adding a fifth year to the present

fourth year preservice program of teacher preparation?

2. Does it mean requiring a fifth year of study by the end of a specified number of years of teaching?

3. Or, does it necessarily mean a fifth year at all, but perhaps involve the organization of inservice education into a more systematic pattern that will encompass a much larger number of years? (p. 165)

These questions, when answered, will justify whether a program of teacher education should be extended over a large period of time or whether all aspects of a teacher education program can be covered within a shorter time.

Areas of Study

Because of the new trends in education today, teachers must be more than simply trained. Specifically, an adequate program of teacher education provides for (a) training in skills, (b) teaching of pedagogical concepts and principles, (c) developing relevant attitudes and (d) teaching the various subject matters of instruction. The first three of these are considered as professional preparation while the last one can be considered as academic. So the areas of study fall into two basic categories, (a) academic disciplines and (b) professional study. A third category - though a part of the second - is educational psychology. Separation of this branch of knowledge has been done for obvious reasons which will be discussed later in the chapter.

Academic disciplines

This section of the training program comprises of branches of knowledge in the liberal arts which combine the elective and prescriptive courses taken to assure a broad general knowledge base for education and teaching. They form the basis for either generalized or specialized teaching areas found at different levels of the school system. For the student teacher, a general education is essential in order to become competent in the field of specialization to be pursued during a teacher's career. Knowledge of the academics alone can do very little in the teaching profession if this knowledge is not used beneficially to those they teach.

Smith et al (1968) recognize general education as disciplines contributing to the teaching field and subject matter to be taught. To this they add another element. They state that the subject matter being prepared for the teacher should consist of two interrelated parts. First, command of the content of the discipline should constitute the teacher's field of specialization and the subject matter to be taught. The second suggestion is about "command of the knowledge about knowledge" (p. 13).

In elaborating further, Smith et al (1969), describe the subject matter of each field of teaching as a mixture of different forms of knowledge. The importance of this statement is explained as follows:

All of the fields contain concepts. Some contain law

> and law-like concepts. Others contain rules and theorems ... It is important for the teacher to be aware of these knowledge forms.... (p. 127)

Conant (1963) agrees with critics of professional education when they suggest that prospective teachers should have a strong academic background. This raises two kinds of questions. First, what sort of general education should the prospective teacher have and secondly, how should this relate to the field of study undertaken. Conant's views are that "a consideration of general education cannot be divorced from the specialized education that may accompany it or follow it" (p. 85).

To this statement, Broudy (1964) raises the point that "a general education should be both common and general" (p. 205). It should be common and general in that the prescribed studies may have the maximum interpretive power for the student. In commenting broadly about general education, he states that "men use their general education to build cognitive and evaluative maps ... General education is rarely used applicatively in the solution of specialized problems" (p. 205).

Clarke (1971) reports that the AACTE (American Association of Colleges for Teaching Education) viewed general education as

> ... that component which should include studies widely generalizable to life and further learning ... The general studies component for prospective

> teachers require one-third to one-half time be devoted to studies in the symbolics of information, basic physical and behavioral sciences and humanities. (p. 12)

General and liberal arts aspect of the education of teachers are crucial and no program is complete without this background knowledge which enhances the program.

Professional study

The purpose of the professional study is to give students a general grounding in the range of subjects which they are likely to teach.

Studies of this nature are theory-based. The background of knowledge that relates to teaching, organization, and administration of education are learned. According to Hilliard:

> He [the teacher] has to relate and adjust his learning to the needs and capabilities of the pupils he has to deal with. To do this he has to draw upon several areas of knowledge, most obviously upon what is usually called the principles and methods of teaching part of the curriculum, and also upon educational psychology ... he must be able to draw upon historical, philosophical and sociological knowledge as well as knowledge of recent experiment and thinking in curriculum development. He has also to begin to face the questions with which he, his pupils, their parents,

> and society in general will together continue to confront him concerning his own position and functions as a member of the teaching profession in a fast-changing society. (p. 35)

Peters (1965) points out that a teacher nowadays "has to learn to think for himself about what he is doing: he can no longer fall back upon an established tradition" (p. 35). The philosophical, psychological and sociological tools made available to the teacher can help the teacher of today to face with some confidence the complex demands which will be made upon him as a professional person (Hilliard, 1971).

This field of study with its philosophical, psychological, historical and sociological aspects has some bearing on the actual practice of teaching children. These studies however, make only a part of educational theory, not the whole of it. Much depends on the other components for its completion.

The professional components of the curriculum are designed to prepare teachers for teaching by covering all requirements that are justified by the work of the specific vocation of teaching (Clarke, 1967). Clarke further states:

> ... professional education does not depend on the name of the study or the department in which the instruction is offered; it depends rather on the function the study is to perform namely, whether it is to be part of general education or of specialized vocational

preparation. (p. 12)

Another reason given in support of the professional component being an integral part of the teacher education program is demonstrated by Hilliard (1971) when he states that a teacher in school has to come to terms with a number of questions and problems before being professionally equipped to work in a school. The teacher has to adjust and relate learning to the needs and capabilities of the pupils being taught. To do this, the teacher "has to draw upon several areas of knowledge, most obviously upon what is usually called the principles and methods of teaching part of the curriculum and also upon educational psychology" (p. 35).

Taylor (1969) had this to say about the topic per se:

> The curriculum courses must give students at least some appreciation of the value of the subject to children, some understanding of what is involved in teaching it, some insight into the difficulties that children are likely to meet and how they may be handled, and some knowledge of the organization of the work in school and materials for it. (p. 113)

The professional component or the study of teaching as it is sometimes referred to, gives the program on teacher education its essential professional character. It relates certain kinds of learning to certain skills that are necessary for the achievement of professional competence in teaching.

Educational psychology

Modern practice of education owes a great deal to psychologists. Educational psychology has earned in recent years a well-deserved place in the teacher education program. Its contribution to education is vast. Its use in teaching is to help the teacher to function humanistically and develop skills involving sensitivity to the feelings and needs of those with whom they interact in the process of teaching. The underlying assumption is that children cannot accomplish academic curriculum learnings until their personal, emotional, and social needs are comfortably met. This is quite compatible to a developmental view of education.

The purpose of educational psychology within the curriculum is, according to McDonald (1969), "to discover how pupils learn under the conditions of schooling and how the conditions of schooling might be modified to increase learning" (p. 77). There is debate however, as to what extent educational psychology is valuable to teaching. To be able to understand this, it is well to look a bit closer at the nature of the topic so as to get a clear picture of its implication. A definition of the term follows:

> ... educational psychology is that special branch of psychology concerned with the nature, conditions, outcomes, and evaluation of school learning and retention. As such the subject matter of educational psychology consists primarily of the theory of mean-

> ingful learning and the retention and the influence of all significant variables - cognitive, developmental, affective, motivational, personality, and social - on school learning by the teacher, the curriculum developer ... or society at large. (Ausubel, 1969, p. 232)

But, according to Jackson (1969), the teaching of educational psychology has not been proven to produce a better crop of teachers and in his opinion it is not likely to be. His reason for this pessimistic attitude is that a course in educational psychology cannot cover the vastness of complexity of human experience. Berieter (1969) on the other hand explains that "educational psychology courses could therefore try to teach what is to become, but is not yet classical thinking about human behavior" (p. 74).

At first, Conant (1963), a critic about education in America, was very skeptical about educational psychology being included in preparation program but came to accept the necessity of it at least for elementary school teachers. In his writing he states:

> I have been convinced, largely by the testimony of students and teachers, that for those who teach children, psychology has much to say that is so valuable as to warrant the label "necessary", at least for elementary teachers. I believe that research will continue that will yield generalizations

> sufficiently wide as to be called scientific. As an introduction to the point of view of those concerned with the behavior of animals (including man), a general course in psychology would seem essential. (p. 136)

Frey and Ellis (1966) carried out an investigation into the importance of the topic per se for teaching to get the candid opinions and reactions of graduates of an undergraduate program as to the actual helpfulness and potential value of educational psychology to their teaching effectiveness. The responses showed that (a) teachers attach considerable importance to a knowledge of educational psychology for teaching effectiveness; but (b) they expressed disappointment at the lack of relativity to actual situations in the classroom; and (c) some expressed the desire that such courses must come just prior to or concurrent with the teaching experiences.

Most of the views expressed by educators are in favor of educational psychology being a part of the training program for teachers. Teachers, no doubt, can benefit much from the kind of help offered in this field as they try to analyse behavior in terms of teaching procedures for children. What then should a program in educational psychology consist?

There have been several attempts made to organize and synthesize the vast and growing research material in educational psychology. For instance, in 1947, the American Psychological Association

published a critique of educational psychology in which it was stated that educational psychology is comprised of five main topics, namely, human growth and development; learning; personality and adjustment; measurement and evaluation; techniques and methods of research. Currently there is a great deal of agreement among educators about these components which still exist as the major areas of educational psychology. A program that includes educational psychology as a component of the curriculum, should offer courses that include the topics just described.

Smith (1962) explains that in a teacher education program, it is imperative to include courses in educational psychology as these courses are expected to give the prospective teacher an understanding of factors which underlie learning ability; to give skills in observations; to provide skills in methods of evaluating; to train the student to recognize individual differences; to acquire fundamental concepts regarding physical growth, development and adjustment, etc. Some writers also claim that a course in educational psychology should include along with the aforementioned, skill in reflective thinking; scientific attitudes; and development of a strong liking for children.

With allowances made for amalgamating theory with practical experience, the student teacher stands to profit much from studies in this field of education.

Practice teaching

Students need to be exposed to educational and human problems

at every step of their training. They need to have many opportunities for involvement in actual learning-teaching situations. In the process of formal preparation for the teaching profession, the prospective teacher must eventually face a teaching experience within the classroom(s) and working under teaching conditions. The rationale for this is to give the aspiring teacher the chance to gain an awareness of the many facets involved in teaching-learning process. It is only with practice that the prospective teacher becomes aware of himself as a teacher in relation to children.

As theory and practice are brought together in the process, meaning and relevance of lectures, readings, discussions and other activities developed in courses come to light. In this way, theory becomes meaningful.

In a report on future programs for teacher education at the University of Toronto (1971), it was suggested that teaching practicum should involve simulated teaching experience, actual teaching in schools, and school-related experiences. Furthermore, these experiences should provide opportunities to develop the attitudes and skills necessary for teaching at all school levels. But this is not the primary function of the practicum although it is a contributory factor. The student-teacher gets an opportunity to develop as a person capable to teach and make the right decisions when necessary.

The question of when to introduce the practicum in the teacher education program has always been debated. Some educators as well

as researchers, claim that an introduction early in the program is best while others claim that towards the end of the program is equally as good. A look at what some of these opinions portray follows.

Tom (1976), a proponent of early practice teaching, explains that "... [it] should not wait until the end of professional training" (p. 2). His reason for making such a statement is given as:

> ... many novices do not know whether they want to be teachers until after student teaching. For them student teaching is not so much a time to perfect skills or to test out educational theories as to try on an occupational role to see if it fits. (p. 6)

On the other hand, for the student teacher who has decided to complete a teacher training program, Tom (1976) explains that an early experience can provide the prospective teacher with an understanding of the teacher's role, and that early teaching experiences seem to offer enough advantages.

Advantages which come as a result of introducing student teachers early to practicum are described in four different, but related ways. These include:

> [a] need to develop the base for concrete perceptual images of classroom life on which later theoretical knowledge can be built; to accelerate the passage through the developmental stages of teacher concerns; to help the novice decide early whether he wants to

be a teacher; and to reduce the number of functions student teaching is expected to fulfill. (Tom, 1976, p. 8)

In 1971, Hilliard examined the practical aspect of training in teacher education programs and made statements in support of its place in the process of training. He writes:

> ... since the teacher has to encourage organized learning of certain kinds which are deemed important or useful to children and young people in the context of formal education, or to put it simply, in a school, he must acquaint himself at first hand with the ways in which people learn. Thus the course [should] contain a component of teaching practice in schools, so that the student teacher may acquire first hand experience of the conditions in which he will practice his profession. (pp. 34-35)

Clarke and Kennedy (1962) also examined the practical teaching component and commented that "teachers have consistently seen actual experiences in the schools as the most valuable part of their pre-service training" (p. 8).

Looking at the issue from a layman's point-of-view, Schoen (1974) describes the teaching practice as one which should "prepare teachers for the life they have to face in the classrooms." She also observes that teachers should

> ... be exposed to as wide a range of classrooms as possible: their purpose being to notice what happens to the pupils ... and in particular to identify the kind of situation in which they would feel most comfortable ... (Brief No. 10)

Although practice teaching is lauded as a necessary component of the program, there are different views in terms of the length of time to be devoted to it, the form it should take, as well as what stage in the program it must be introduced.

Should practicum be embarked upon early in the program, the middle or towards the end? Sharpe (1956) sees premature introduction as having negative effects. According to him the student will tend to reproduce the kind of teaching experienced as a pupil. This may be good, bad or indifferent depending on the quality of the student teacher's own previous education. Another reason given is that the student tends to be forced immediately into formal class teaching where the class is treated as a unit and little attention is given to individual differences. Sharpe also comments that the early experience at teaching can become "fixated," that is, methods that appear to work often because of particular situational factors become panaceas.

Today, practice teaching has become multidimensional. Some new forms described by Channon (1971) show new approaches in practice teaching for student teachers. The first is a prolonged period of experience in the schools.

> The teacher is seen as learning the craft of teaching under the direction of a master craftsman. In its most extreme form, the internship approach results in a total assignment of responsibility. In its more usual form, however, the training instructor retains control over the internship experience ... (p. 70)

A second, and contrasting approach to practice teaching, may be described as the skills approach. Channon explains that this approach, in its present form, is derived from the intensive research of the past decade or so on the strategies which teachers employ in the classroom and on the kinds of interaction which take place between teachers and students. This new approach shows that distinct teaching skills should be identified and taught separately. The student teacher's performance of each skill may be videotaped and discussed or analysed using the techniques of interaction analysis.

Another modification of practice teaching is that of a team effort. Channon (1971) explains that "it seems only reasonable that for at least some part of the practice teaching period, students might practice together as teams, rather than always as individuals alone in the classroom" (p. 70).

Bittel's (1976) views about the provision for practical experience as well as involvement in the classroom early sums up this segment. He claims that it serves a three-fold purpose in a student's education. These he outlined as follows:

1. It is an important learning experience in itself.

2. It is an experience for the creation of needs to know.

3. It is an opportunity for the student to try himself out in a practical laboratory. (p. 26)

This form of training gives student teachers the "opportunity for field experience and it not only helps them to be better prepared for the job of teaching but also to be reasonably secure about making a commitment to teaching" (p. 26).

The practice-teaching period, like the internship in many other professions, is indispensable for the professional training of teachers. Sarason, Davidson and Blatt (1962) observed that there is much discussion about the topic in the literature on teacher education; but expressed disappointment that there had been little focus on student-teacher-master-teacher relationship. Douglas (1974) of New Mexico State University compiled a list of ten "do's and don't's" for the co-operating teacher. For a list of these, see Appendix A.

Methodology

Methods as described by Broudy (1965), refers to the formal structure of the sequence of acts commonly denoted by instruction. Smith's (1962) definition of method is a practice that encompasses a wide array of style to achieve a stated aim. The overall style includes ways students are highly motivated to learn. Each of the definitions described here explain the techniques used in any teaching-learning situation with teacher training being no exception.

In reviewing the literature about methodology, Blume's (1971) description of Combs' research have much 'food for thought.' His discussions were derived from a review of Arthur Combs' research which grew out of principles that emerged in the literature. Blume supplies basic information that concerns methodology in teacher education. These findings are listed in Appendix B. The implications of these, as outlined by Blume are as follows:

> ... if effective teachers see the teaching task as one of freeing and assisting, rather than controlling or coercing, then we must provide teacher education which does not insist on particular methods, but which encourages students to seek their own best methods. These programs should encompass a wide variety of approaches.

Taylor, Doyle, and Link (1971) also looked at the instructional procedures used in teacher education programs. They observed the instructional strategies and in their discussion suggest that interaction with others must be a part of the program in the form of conferences and small group activities. More particularly both time and opportunity must be provided for students to visit with advisers and instructors. Taylor et al (1971) also looked at the individualization of instruction for teachers. Because students enter at different levels of development in becoming teachers, their individual developmental levels must be recognized.

Generations of teachers have been prepared for teaching using a variety of methods to instruct. These methods include the lecture, seminar, other groupings, discussion or participation, discovery, independent study and more recently observation, microteaching and teaching machines. The purpose of this segment is to present communication models that are readily accepted in the teaching-learning process and to describe them as they contribute to the students' learning.

The lecture

Under favorable circumstances, much can be learned by the lecture method. Sarason, Davidson and Blat (1962) reviewed the question of how teachers are trained and how they develop an interest in the world of ideas in children. Their observation of the lecture method is that it is found to be the most popular technique used in colleges and universities. This led them to make the following generalizations:

> Facts, ideas and principles can be learned (on a verbal level), their interrelationship pursued and determined (on a verbal level), and a perspective in relation to an aspect of the world of ideas obtained.... The point deserving emphasis, however, is that when facts, ideas and principles are being learned in order to be applied to influencing the lives of others, the manner in which these principles are implemented may bear little relationship to their letter or spirit.

> It requires no research to conclude that people's actions do not always reflect the knowledge they possess or the principles they hold to be true. (p. 7)

Other writers examine the lecture method in terms of its communication capacity. Among these is Heslett (1971) whose findings are put in a communicational framework. He reports that Stovall (1958) had found the lecture and discussion methods to be equally effective only in the acquisition of information, but the discussion method was found to be "significantly superior in establishing one's ability to evaluate and synthesize information, to draw inferences and perceive relationships from the material presented" (p. 190).

Marr, Platt, Wakely and Wilkins (1960) report in their research, that the lecture method resulted in students doing better on exams than students who receive non-lecture instruction. This was challenged by Turbeville (1964) on the basis that exams were directed toward the measure of information that was presented in the lecture. Turbeville's findings coincides with Stovall's.

Turbeville, an opposer of the lecture method looks at the psychological aspect of it, pointing out that the average student's attention span is 30 minutes, whereas the university lecture lasts for 50 minutes. This, he claims, forces the student to listen. How much information is absorbed is questionable.

Willis (1968) looks at the current practice of lectures in teacher education programs. Large classes, the growing body of knowledge,

and the inclination of instructors tend to make the lecture, the dominant method of instruction. To him, teaching is essentially a complex combination of skills and the lecture is simply not an effective way to develop effective teachers (Willis, 1968).

Pulliman (1962) asks the controversial question, "Are we reviving discredited teaching methods?" in his article he wrote by the same name. He too found that lectures are confined to giving information with no application. To him this is "miseducative" and "incomplete." His contention is that the lecture method instructs but that this does not contribute much to the student's learning.

Seen in another light, is Trott's (1963) idea of the lecture. He supports the lecture method on the grounds that it be not a process of repeating facts from a textbook but that it be the lecturer's personal interpretation of the information. This implies that the lecturer should project his own thinking so that his audience can grasp with deep enthusiasm the implications of the subject being discussed.

It is difficult to relegate the lecture method in preference to others. Its use in the process of educating students in Colleges and Universities has been one of the principal means of communicating knowledge. It has been used widely by the various disciplines and the total teacher education program has been subjected to its use for generations.

The seminar

Another popular form of teaching method employed is the

seminar. Some writers see this form as being more important than the lecture. Some of the reasons are:

1. If the seminar is properly conducted, it entails active involvement in the process of argument in writing and in speech.

2. The student gets the opportunity to come in direct contact with the teacher and shares in his interest and disciplined approach to the subject.

3. More time and effort are devoted to it.

There are two types identified in the literature. The first is directly related to the course of lectures and is a way of giving students the opportunity of discussing problems that they have confronted in the lectures. The second is conducted by a student who prepares a paper to be shared with the class. In the meantime while this sharing is going on, the other students are not pushed to make a contribution. The purpose of the seminar then, is to actively engage the students in discussion but the second type discussed here defeats the purpose.

Other groupings

This includes tutorials, group discussions, case studies, role-playing, and simulations. Also included in this group is the seminar but it has been separated only for discussion purposes.

The special feature of these groups is the extent to which its members come to know one another as they indulge in particular learnings. What distinguishes them from the lecture group is not only the size (often small groupings of approximately four or five) but

according to Hilliard (1971) the "face-to-face communication" which the students are involved in during the learning procedures.

How then do these groups work. Hilliard (1971) explains that the students are expected to do preparation reading, to prepare short papers, and give these papers to the group to criticize under the guidance of the tutor. The papers may be considered as "a piece of written work, or alternatively a number of small groups may discuss the same problem and each through a spokesman present its views and solutions to a formal meeting comprising all the groups in a plenary session" (p. 113). The larger meeting performs a dual role - it provides everyone with the decision that has been reached as well as a correcting influence to everyone in the group.

Discussion or participation

The discussion or participation method was found to be an effective means for teaching students how to apply knowledge (Heslett, 1971). Lewin's study of 1947 showed that the discussion or participation experiences brings about changes in attitudes, and contributes to the influencing of the individual's behavior. He also found that students were motivated more in this manner.

Maddox (1970) cautions that if discussions are dominated by instructors, they become "less effective in changing attitudes and [in] generating motivation which allow more student participation" (p. 162). He also found that the rate of transmission of information is somewhat slower than in lectures.

Discussion is seen as an effective means of clarifying information that "encounters intellectual or emotional resistance" (Maddox, 1970, p. 162). Apart from cognitive gains, discussion in groups facilitate the development of social skills, and the ability to work.

Other methods

To describe in detail all methods used or can be used in teaching is a thesis in itself. Those methods that were described earlier have been researched extensively over time and have found to be quite popular in teaching-learning field. Others, which may be popular in use with some professors, lecturers, etc. are discussed here in a general way only to give insights of how applicable they are in the classrooms.

Discovery. This method is used mostly in project studies. the principle of learning by discovery is to allow the students to obtain information and knowledge receptively. One difficulty faced is the necessary motivation to carry out the intended tasks independently. The discovery method works well if the project deals with a socially relevant problem.

Independent study. This has a strong kinship to the project method or discovery method. It affords the student to learn at his own pace and the opportunity to work closely with the professors thereby gaining individual attention. Reports show that with some students, fewer facts are remembered while others learn and comprehend more because of the opportunity to work at their own rate.

Microteaching. This is a scaled-down version of real teaching designed to develop new teaching skills and refine old ones. Microteaching is best explained in terms of how it is done.

A student or instructor teaches a small group of pupils for a period of five to twenty minutes, observes his lesson on videotapes and perhaps reteaches it to a different group of pupils. The component skills of teaching are used, that is, questioning, explaining, encouraging students to participate, gaining and holding attention, etc. The student sees a demonstration of skills either by the tutor in charge or videotape recordings and is then given the chance to practice it.

This method has practical value for training teachers although it cannot hope to produce the magnitude of skills considered necessary for teaching.

Teaching machine. These equipments are used as a supplement to conventional teaching methods such as lectures, discussion, and textbook assignments. Some teaching machines are substituted for other teaching methods as well, as for example, an instrument of instruction, a testing device or as a major method to be supplemented by the teacher.

Research into its effective use have pointed to its positive as well as its negative results. One report states that students do not learn exclusively from programs and that learning is generally slower than with conventionally printed material. Another report states that in some cases achievement is higher and that one must judge whether

the extra investment in time is justified by the gain in learning. Other reports claim that learning is less than, learning from conventional sources.

Teaching machines may be used successfully if there is a genuine concern on the part of the teacher to make sure that in the long-run students learn what they were supposed to learn.

General conclusions about the superiority of any one method being better than the other have not been reached yet it is understandable why there are reasons for contradictory opinions. Decisions pertaining to methodology are difficult to make and are by no means insurmountable. The choice of an instructional method in the past was extremely simple - the types were few. With the advent of educational technology in a variety of different forms, there are now many alternative approaches to teaching in higher education.

Researchers have done their best at comparing the outcomes of different teaching methods. The success of any method depends upon its user. The identification of important differences between students and the ways they learn make it possible to contrast methods of instruction to enhance performance.

Research

There is a widespread belief that "research benefits teaching" (Cronbach & Suppes, 1969). There are only few that would reject this view. Research has long been an important determinant of institutional status because of its function to supply empirical data. It is not meant

to amass facts but to know the meanings underlying the facts. This discussion is presented to show how research information can be helpful in the preparation of teachers.

Research has always been undertaken to increase the stock of scientific and technical knowledge to devise new applications. Its use is indispensable with regards to decisions about teacher education. It has revealed the many variables that interact in determining the complexity of the teaching situation and therefore makes empirical information precious. The use of research points to the fact that decisions must stem from knowledge resulting from fields of inquiry. Beliefs in the worth of what we do is not sufficient; knowing more about what we do is important. This can only be derived from research.

Teacher education has been referred to as being complex. Peck and Tucker (1973) describe it this way:

> ... a long, complicated series of operations. Each operation is, itself, an extremely complex set of steps, most of which have never been carefully identified, let alone measured. In these respects teacher education resembles psychotherapy as a process which cries out for precise, microscopic analysis. (p. 942)

Research, then, is one way to explain the present state of the subject and from it sound decisions about teacher education can be made from its empirical base.

Peck and Tucker (1973) also point out that research can contribute immensely to the training of teachers. They claim that teacher education involves many more factors which interact simultaneously, that is, "the pupils' aptitudes, interest, readiness and attitudes toward learning; their parents' and their subcultures' attitudes toward schooling; the administrative policies and the interpersonal organization of the schools; similar characteristics of the teacher-training institutions; the individual, personal characteristics of the teachers" (p. 943), are constantly at work in the real settings briefly summed up with the simple sounding phrase, "teacher education." To make an adequate assessment of, and to thoroughly understand how these factors interact, research designs are the best contributory factors. Peck and Tucker (1973) made favorable comments in the following way:

> Research designs, to be adequate, must accurately identify, measure and account for all of these factors and their complex, interacting effects. A simple design may be appropriate if just one or two factors can genuinely be isolated and studied; but then it is certain that a great many such studies would have to be performed before they would add up to an adequate map of the total process of teacher education. (p. 943)

Today, educational research is seen as all kinds of disciplined inquiry into educational matters. The essence of this concept is best conveyed through a few quotations from the report of Cronbach and

Suppes (1969):

1. Disciplined inquiry has a quality that distinguishes it from other sources of opinion and belief. The disciplined inquiry is conducted and reported in such a way that the arguments can be painstakingly examined.

2. The report of a disciplined inquiry has a texture that displays the raw materials entering the argument and the logical process by which they were compressed and rearranged to make the conclusion credible.

3. Fundamental to disciplined inquiry is its central attitude which places a premium on objectivity and evidential test.

4. Disciplined inquiry does not necessarily follow well-established, formal procedures. Some of the most excellent inquiry is free-ranging and speculative in its initial stages. (p. 15 - 18)

The extent of educational research then, does not only depend on sophisticated techniques but naturalistic observations, logical and philosophical analyses, and methodological framework can be other techniques employed which no doubt can yield favorable results. Decisions derived from this process may not be as reliable as research yielding strictly empirical facts but nonetheless, it appears quite understandable that this method is better than a trial and error process.

Summary

The issues confronting teacher educators are many and com-

plex. This chapter highlights selected issues by presenting some assumptions, definitions and propositions. Some assumptions not yet tested still serve as useful information for teacher education programs. Where definitions are given, it is hoped that they will help the reader to focus more concernedly on the issue that is being discussed. The propositions relate to the organized ideas put forward by those interested in teacher education and which serve as bases for decisions and actions in teacher education.

This chapter deals with only six of the complicated issues. It explores the potential value of each as it applies to teacher education. This is an attempt to explore the reported findings and to look at the differences of these findings and opinions to determine what might be applicable in a specific situation.

CHAPTER IV

ISSUES IN THE TRAINING OF NURSERY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN GUYANA

The question of training teachers has been perennial among educators since the days of Jesuits, reputed to be the first to regard the special training of teachers as the first prerequisite for the effective education of children (Akinpelu, 1975). To develop a program for the preparation of teachers requires a considerable effort on the part of educators. As Verduin (1967) points out, "a decision on what is important for teachers, an identification of variables for consideration and some theoretical and perhaps some philosophical notions about teaching-learning and the meaning it has for teachers" (p. 2).

Teacher education as is discussed in this chapter, examines the kind of teacher education that is considered suitable in a Guyanese context. The focus will be on the theoretical and practical decisions relative to program planning, implementation and management that must be faced by those persons directly responsible for the training programs of early childhood educators.

The view of Guyana has now to be placed in a sociological perspective. By defining in terms of cultural values, social structures and social processes, it becomes clearer to arrive at some measure of understanding the dynamics of teacher education for nursery schools in Guyana. Teacher education not only functions to produce teachers but reflects a mass of cultural and structural features both of the

educational system to which it is linked and of the wider society and economy to which it must serve.

In this chapter, attention is directed toward what is considered basic to the program; its organization, its selection of candidates, duration of training, instructional content and delivery, and criteria for evaluation.

Developing a Systematic Framework

1. Setting the Stage: Goals and Objectives

According to Peters and Dorman (1974), the first step in the design of a program for teacher education is to have an identifiable philosophy which is the key to a successful program. In other words, the principles underlying the nature of education for the young is what is considered to be the kinds of educative experiences for teachers in training. The philosophy of education in Guyana today is, that education is "a major agent of change ... and norms of behavior ... must show a capacity to respond realistically to social and political change" (Baird, 1976, p. 2).

When these principles are identified, specific goals and objectives can be decided in keeping with the philosophy identified. Because of the emphasis of this study, the design of a teacher education program will be developed in terms of what would pertain to Guyana.

Defining goals. A program designed for teachers of nursery schools in Guyana would need to examine the broad goals of education designed by the Department of Nursery School Education. "Program

goals," according to Peters and Dorman (1974), "if broadly derived and explicitly stated, can provide the parameters of a program definition" (p. 115). Therefore, an examination of the Guyana Nursery Education Program should be done with a view of examining the role of the teacher in order to determine the goals set out specifically for the Nursery School Education Program.

Purpose of the Guyana Nursery Education Program. For a clear articulation of the aims of teacher education one must examine first of all, what would be the role of the teacher in the Guyana society. To be able to understand this role, the purposes for which the Guyana Nursery Education Program (GNEP) are designed should be examined. These are outlined as follows:

1. Promote patriotism among young Guyanese and create a learning environment in which socialist ideals are emphasized;

2. Provide children with opportunity for self-initiated activity through educational experience based on the continuing analysis of each child's modes of learning.

3. Enable children to acquire basic skills, and to develop desirable attitudes to learning;

4. Develop in children self-confidence and a healthy self-concept through promoting their mental and physical health;

5. Unite all Guyanese children so that they learn to accept each other, irrespective of differences of age, of social, economic or cultural background or of ethnic grouping;

6. Provide a learning environment which will encourage the socializing of the child;

7. To provide a learning environment which will challenge and support exploration and problem-solving and promote creativity;

8. Extend learning experiences beyond the walls of the classroom and establish genuine two-way communication between the home and the school;

9. Emphasize team work among teachers para-professionals, ancillary staff, parents, children and members of the community.

The goals, broadly stated, set the focus for instructional designing of a teacher education program. An examination of the specific goals falls logically in order.

Goals of the Nursery Program. Because of situational variation, different training levels, geographical and sociocultural constaints, and so forth, it is impossible for specific goals or program content to have generalized applicability for every early childhood personnel training program (Peters and Dorman, 1974). In identifying the ingredients for planning the program for teacher education, Peters and Dorman (1974), provide insights into the importance of knowledge about goals in the following ways:

> Program goals are global, and are concerned with ultimate outcomes and multiple content areas, and provide the overall directionality for the program ...

> Program goals provide the referent for administrative decision making. They do not, in themselves, constitute adequate criteria for the development of instruction. Refinement is necessary, through the efforts of the program personnel, to provide detailed learner objectives. These objectives may then provide the guidelines for the development of specific program components. (p. 115)

Since each program will develop according to its stated goals, then it will develop a "personality" of its own. In the case of Guyana, the goals are stated in terms of the following national interest and socialistic underpinnings:

1. To prepare children to benefit from future learning experiences through self-initiated, active participation in their own learning.

2. To foster physical, mental, emotional and social growth through the child's modes of learning, spontaneous comments, questions and dramatic play.

3. To create an environment in which socialist ideals are emphasized.

4. To promote patriotism through demonstration and patterns of communication which will foster in children a positive image of themselves.

5. To help children accept and appreciate children of different

ages, backgrounds and ethnic groups based on acceptance of agreed upon limits for behavior with full freedom of expression and movement within those limits.

6. To create an environment in which a child feels secure, accepted; and level through support of the child and his needs.

7. To develop in children self-confidence and a healthy self-concept.

8. To establish genuine two-way communication with parents in order to develop a partnership between house and school on behalf of the learning of the children.

9. To create a learning environment which will challenge and support probing and problem-solving with continuous restructuring of the environment in terms of different levels and the changing interests of children.

10. To emphasize teamwork among teachers, aides, administrative staff, ancillary staff, parents and children in mutual support of the children's sense of themselves as individuals and as learners.

11. To extend the learning experiences beyond the walls of the classroom moving from neighbourhood to community and bringing back the child's extended world into the classroom.

The goals, once defined, will form the basis for constructing an "ideal" program. The function of these goals serve to provide a sense of direction and at the same time give definition to the program. Such programs, when designed are sensitive to cultural leanings.

Establishing objectives. Once the goals are identified, the next stage can be put into its right perspective. That is, the goals are established and examined in order to determine specific behaviors of its trainees. The speculations of Spodek (1975) give a prescriptive analysis of the next stage in the planning process. He advises that training "a teacher for the program requires the patterning of specific behaviors" (p. 172).

An examination of the goals as they pertain to Guyana sets the scene. The next criterion to take into account is the rationale for this view of education for the young child.

Rationale for the Nursery School Education program. This is described in A Guide to Nursery Education as follows:

> The Nursery Programme Approach for Guyanese children between the ages of 3 years 9 months and 5 years 9 months is based on the premise that the classroom situation should approximate a rational, socialistic life situation in which the child is expected to assume some responsibility for persuing his interests, developing his capacities, expressing his feelings freely and constructively, and contributing to a productive classroom society for learning. The adults play a central role in individualizing curriculum in response to a growing awareness of the national goals, and each child's strengths and special needs. Child behavior is influenced by interaction with adults with whose

attitudes, actions and modes of expression children tend to identify. Conclusively, the adult serves as facilitator of individual autonomy, a catalyst, and an enabler (unpaged).

In the rationale, the needs of young Guyanese children are identified. These needs form the basis for translating the goals into program objectives. Bishop (1976) describes the critical nature of objectives as "the counterpart of needs ... (and) the intent and focus of the project" (p. 43).

Bishop (1976) also states categorically that "analyzing needs data and defining objectives is the first step in the planning process" (p. 42). From these objectives, program elements develop and determine the necessary content, resources, experiences, standards, instructional strategy, and evaluative measures essential to a qualitative program (see Figure 3). Unclear objectives then, are invitations to failure and the program is likely to suffer from a lack of direction.

This segment that deals with goals and objectives points to the issues and problems that can arise if these are not well defined from the inception. Once the goals are designed, the needs are identified. Then these needs can be translated into objectives which become the base for subsequent planning. These steps are the preliminary elements in the development of a program.

2. Implementing the Program

Obvious variations in teacher education programs exist.

The philosophy behind the program enables those involved in

This refers to political, parental, and social agencies that have both direct and indirect influences upon the development of a program.

Consider what particular information is to be studied or what skills or competencies are to be attained in order to meet the objectives.

These are designed to assess the achievement of the program or the graduates of the program.

These factors help to shape plans for instruction.

These are the methods used to provide learning opportunities to meet the objectives.

These are the activities that the learners do in connection with the objectives.

These refer to the procedures used to meet professional standards.

These are those things used to enhance teaching.

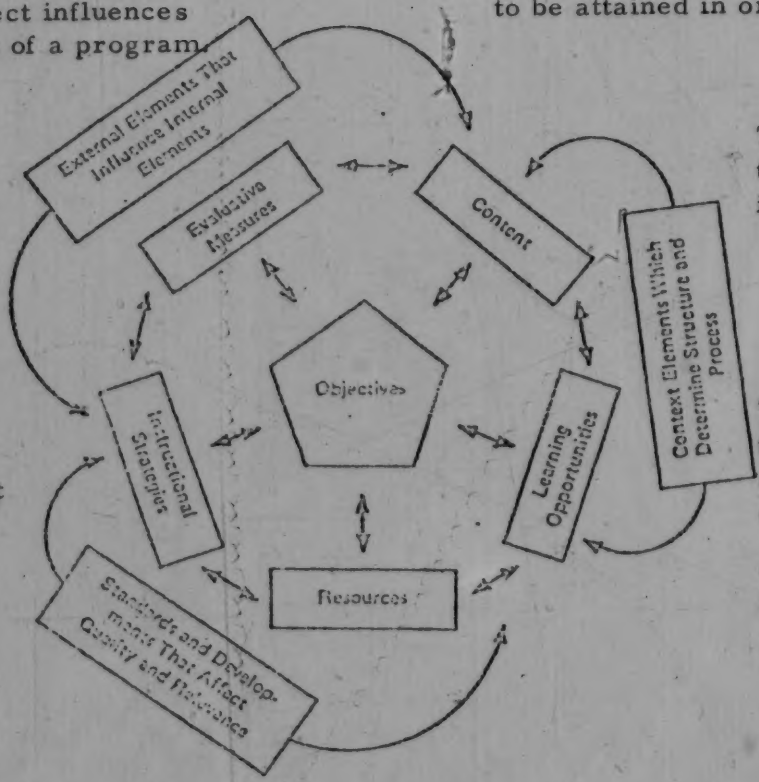

Figure 3

Focal points for teacher training and program development.

(Adapted from Staff development and instructional improvement by L. Bishop, 1976)

its development to assess the potential relevance to local needs. Regardless of what is the philosophy of the program, its components remain the same. The literature reviewed along with the framework for a teacher education program suggested by Spodek (1969) point to what is basic in any teacher education program. These will be discussed in relation to a program for early childhood educators. According to the literature, the level of the training, once decided, will determine these factors that comprise the program.

Selection practices. The level of selection narrows the range of potential candidates. The present system of selection of prospective teachers for training is based primarily on formal education, which though advantageous does not guarantee success of the program. Along with the "proper" academic background (an essential element to cope with the academic disciplines), special qualities of an early childhood educator should be taken into account as well.

Spodek (1969) makes a very important suggestion concerning selection on the basis of scholastic competence. For teachers who will teach young children, this criterion is not the most appropriate though necessary so Spodek explains that other selection criteria should be included. These are identified as "basic inner qualities" which Gross (1967) lists as:

(a) love for children in an educational sense, which means that a teacher must base her relationship to a child on the knowledge she has of the child's personal and

developmental needs;

(b) the ability to distinguish between the teacher's personal needs and the child's;

(c) knowledge of how children learn;

(d) a personality that is comfortable and open-ended;

(e) pleasure in working with parents if she (teacher) is to work effectively with young children. (pp. 108-110)

In addition, Spodek says that the teacher must show an aptitude for interpersonal skills. Studies concerning the topic have listed in addition to the above, the following traits.

Almy (1975) suggests that the early childhood educator should have physical stamina, an understanding of human development, respect for personality, and imbued with a scientific spirit.

Leeper (1968) suggests that in addition to love for children, a teacher must be patient, kind, warm and outgoing, should enjoy working with children, and should be secure.

Other studies list such qualities as general interest in children, ability to instruct, professional attributes, ability to maintain good human relations, a sense of humor, etc.

Studies of demand and supply show that in the business of teacher education, the situation becomes critical when there is an urgent need for teachers. If the program is for placing people into career employment the selection process becomes complex, that is, it will take into account all that was described about admission requirements in Chapter

III, along with the qualities the teacher should possess as described here. This procedure will limit the choice of applicants. If the program is for upgrading, the selection narrows a lot.

Of consideration too, is the potential student's aspirations - the desire to become a teacher of young children. The selection procedure must take into account these additional factors if an appropriate "match" is to be made between student and program.

Given the task of selecting teachers, how must one proceed to secure those who best qualify to teach? How must one determine the degree to which the applicant has the qualities desired or if she possesses them at all? It becomes a question which administrators must face in selecting those candidates that possess the necessary qualities to become teachers of young children. This would be the task facing program planners in Guyana.

There are a number of ways to go about selecting teachers for young children, none of which is prescriptive, only suggestive. Some of these might best be applied alone or in connection with others. The most common ways that seem to be effective are:

(a) letters of reference, but these only give general information;

(b) reference forms which ask questions regarding vitality and personality, professional spirit, social spirit, leadership ability, adaptability, skills, experience with young children, etc.;

(c) the interview. Procedures vary from having the interviewee appear before a single interviewer, several interviewers, or a committee. In the interview, attention is given to personality traits, oral expression, interest in children, teaching philosophy, "why I want to teach" statements, professional ambitions, etc.

No doubt, from the nature of the selective process, expertise is needed.

In the teaching field of Guyana, there are untrained and unskilled teachers still operating in a professional capacity in the nursery schools. Should these teachers become a part of the training program to better prepare them to teach? Should they be recruited to training programs at the institutional level? If so, on what grounds would they be selected?

Those who are in charge of teacher selection programs should use the above discussion as a guide to direct their efforts to those channels which will prove the greatest return.

Personality attributes. Personality as is discussed here refers to those traits that can be developed in the training program so as to foster a good teaching-learning relationship between the teacher and the pupil.

The sort of person a teacher is affects the students she teaches. If a feeling of warmth is demonstrated then pupils tend to respond accordingly. Teaching becomes a great challenge to personality.

Yardley (1971) subscribes to this view and identifies the various aspects of a teacher's behavior that have profound influence on the child. These are:

1. serenity, which refers to the mental health of the teacher;
2. maturity;
3. sense of values - the teacher's attitudes become examples which children can copy. (pp. 30-33)

Unfortunately, research has not shown that there is any direct connection between student performance and teacher personality but there is the feeling among writers of the literature that this theory is connected somehow.

Spodek (1972) draws one's attention to the fact that

> ... there is relatively little we can say about the relationship of various attributes of the teacher and educational performance of children. Neither personality characteristics, styles of teaching, nor specific teacher behaviors have shown any relationship to children's learning.... Perhaps only by looking at the organic relationship of the social system can we identify pertinent attributes and elements of the system. (pp. 347-348)

Gore and Koury (1964) drew up a list of personal qualities and competencies a teacher must possess to enable her to promote positive

relationship with children when working with them. These are outlined in Appendix C.

From a survey of the literature, it was found that writers do not subscribe to a blueprint for the ideal personality pattern of the teacher. What is reported are the kinds of behaviors that children demonstrate in response to their teacher's personality reflections.

Undoubtedly, the relationship between the teacher and the child enables him to develop his individuality - a necessary requirement for his growth and development.

This is an important area into which teacher education planners must look. Changes both in values and in education have given rise to changes in the way people think and the attitudes they develop. Differences among children are bound to exist due to parents attitudes and in "the precise ways they mediate and teach the values of society to their children" (Bowen, 1977a, p. 4). It becomes incumbent on the teacher to teach those values deemed necessary in the socialization process within the concept of a Guyanese education. Conflicts are likely to occur. The techniques used will to a large extent depend upon the teacher's personality. To be able to deal with such situations calls for specific teaching strategies which can be facilitated in training programs.

Competencies for the teacher. Drake, Denemark, and Hermanowicz (1967) examined a number of programs for teacher education and disclosed that there is a common focus in all of them.

In a report of their findings, they explained that:

> Some programs focus on instructional skills needed by the beginning teacher ... other programs seem to emphasize a concern for developing in students, an image of teaching ... of various roles which teachers play ... some programs seem to place special emphasis upon fostering appropriate personality and value patterns in teachers coupled frequently with effective communication skills. Another emphasis ... is upon attitudes which support an analytical and experimental approach to teaching and commitment to the concept of continuing learning through the lifetime of the teacher.
>
> Another area in many programs ... lies in the category of fostering basic professional "literacy" regarding educational issues and developments ... Familiarity with practice in the school system in which the student will begin teaching is yet another. (pp. 20-21)

The composite picture offered for what is desired in a teacher education program can fit into three categories. There is agreement that the program should include (a) a theoretical component, (b) a training component and (c) a field component. Smith, Cohen and Pearl (1968) also regard these categories as essential in a program for preparing teachers to "teach in the real world."

Program content. The categories identified are inclusive in

the design of any teacher education program. However, Gore and Koury (1967) claim that the professional preparation for teaching in the nursery school demands a special kind of training. Such training includes, in addition, emphasis on developmental learning and a background of understanding of children and the entire program of early childhood education.

In agreement, Spodek (1969) explains that the components of a training program for teachers "needs to be determined by its relevancy of the teaching act. No course content should be included ... simply because it is significant child development knowledge or important historical fact" (p. 145).

Howard (1968) studied ten exemplary programs for teacher preparation in early childhood education, and found that "each program required special courses and field experiences for early childhood education students" (p. 3). He also observed that "the provision for this special training suggests that there is general recognition of the need for specialized training of undergraduates who plan to teach young children" (p. 3).

As a result of his findings, Howard (1968), attempted to determine the characteristics of exemplary early childhood teacher education programs and came up with the following recommendations. These are:

1. A broad liberal arts background rather than an intense specialization in one or two disciplines (p. 8);

2. An interdisciplinary approach (p. 8);

3. A division of approximately one-third of professional education hours in highly specialized courses for teachers of young children, one-third of the hours in student teaching experiences; and one-third of the hours in child development, educational psychology, and foundation courses (p. 10);

4. An emphasis on the interrelatedness of knowledge in the teaching of and learning by young children (p. 11).

In another study concerned with the requirements of a teacher education program for early childhood educators, Allen and Hawkes (1970) suggest that professional training for teachers should include:

1. A first-rate liberal education.

2. Broad knowledge of the sequence of human development from birth to maturity.

3. A working understanding of how people learn, of competing psychological theories and their evidence.

4. An understanding of principles and methods of educational research.

5. Some understanding of the total range of the curriculum.

6. Knowledge of teaching means, methods and materials.

7. Experience working with children in a variety of learning situations.

8. Experimentation in learning to handle oneself in a number of contexts - with teaching colleagues, administrators, and various

members of the lay public, as well as with parents and children.

9. An acquaintance with a range of journals, newsletters, official publications, and organizations.

10. Knowledge of ways and means of gathering new knowledge.

Practicum. Besides the learning aspect of the program, there is the teaching-learning component, otherwise referred to as practicum, student teaching, practical teaching, internship, etc. Required practicum experiences in actual field situations is a standard program recommenation.

Practical experiences are an important learning tool (Spodek, 1969; 1972). They provide the realistic opportunity to learn under continuous supervision; they serve to make more meaningful and comprehensible the theoretical and methodological components of other courses; they provide trainees with the opportunity to test ideas in real situations; as well as, they are a motivating factor (Honig & Fears, 1974).

Gardner and Henry (1968) view this aspect of the program as the best single factor and the most valuable experience for teachers in preparing to teach. Shaplin and Powell (1964) view this component as the very sense of the program. In discussing the teacher training program Conant (1963), contends that he would have the competence of a future teacher tested by practical teaching when he discussed practicum in early childhood education as a necessary training requirement. There are other educators who maintain that in early childhood training programs, practicum is the preferred training technique to learn

skills in actual classroom teaching.

The Practicum: Where?

It has been suggested by early childhood educators that the best places where this might occur would be in settings that parallel the actual teaching situation for the prospective teachers. Writers have suggested that the student practicing experiences should help the trainees gain insights into working with children in settings other than the classroom, as for example, in day care centres, in homes with parents, where they do not only practice the skills but get first hand training in working with children and parents as well.

The Practicum: How often?

The problem debated in early childhood education practical working experiences points to the number of times these experiences should be done. No specific answer is supplied. Some educators state that practicum should accompany each step of the training. Some programs dictate the allotment of sequential training time. Some educators suggest that the length of the program determines the experiences. That means, if the length of the program is of short duration, practicum may be extended over a longer period of time.

Methodology. The methods described in Chapter III have the same influences on teachers in training in early childhood education. However, there is a strong tendency to make more use of observational techniques. In early childhood education, the focus is primarily on children. The use of observation is one way to gain some initial skill

in learning more about them. Observational techniques have been used in many learning settings to make the learner more sensitive to the children's needs, wishes, desires and abilities.

According to Almy (1975), systems of observing young children have been focused primarily on the individual child, classroom behavior, natural settings, etc. Its place in the training program is highlighted in the research and its importance for early childhood educators is undeniable.

Research has not shown whether there is a relationship between the teaching methods that the student experiences in colleges, etc. and those which he uses in the schools. But it is frequently suggested in the writings, that the student who learns to regard a certain method during training will continue to use these approaches when in a teaching capacity. An underlying assumption among some educators is that when teachers are treated in the same way they are supposed to treat their pupils, they are more likely to adopt the desired style of teacher behavior. Methods used at the institutional level can have profound implications of how a teacher will behave in the classroom.

Length of training

Decisions about how long a program for teacher education should be, rest with the designers of the program. If the program emphasis is to train teachers on a narrow basis (that is, a limited content approach), then a short duration may be possible. If, however, complete training is the goal of the program, then a longer time is required so

as to be able to educate the trainees in all relevant areas.

The challenge of evaluation

Evaluation is essentially a judgment of the quality of the staff and its effectiveness and training. In the teacher education process, evaluation is used to examine the effectiveness of the program. Input can come from formal as well as informal procedures.

Most writers seem to be in agreement that the graduates of programs for teacher education be evaluated in some type of follow-up study. The performance of the teacher in the teaching situation can be the best way of judging the effectiveness of the program. No specific methodology is suggested. One advice that seems feasible is that evaluation can be done by asking the students about their teachers, and by asking the teacher educators how they involve themselves professionally, and by watching them teach.

In the case of Guyana, evaluation in the early stages of the program should be done to determine the success in terms of the effectiveness of the program and the consequence of training teachers.

Summary

The issues outlined in this chapter have implications for teacher education at the college or university level. Planners of any program should consider what has developed here as a number of guidelines for planning a program in teacher education. The question of the implementation of programs in the Guyanese society is a question of emphasis on the goals and objectives. The ideas developed are based on what

were reported of exemplary programs for early childhood educators. Close examination of their applicability is necessary. To do this, requires the help of several persons for their input, judgment and recommendation.

If teacher education is to be of benefit to the trainees, it must be relevant to the Guyanese community reflecting its norms, values, goals and aspirations.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

This study addressed itself to a complex task of identifying the crucial elements of teacher education. The subject of teacher education in a Guyanese context can hardly be discussed without political overtones. However, no political debate about education is included but reference to politics is used to show how the education system is developed and channeled.

Katz (1974) suggests that teacher education can be thought of as sets of activities and experiences by which it is intended that trainees should acquire, like role definition, teaching style, teaching techniques, and professional identification. She also suggests that these activities and experiences may vary in duration, timing and sequencing, content and social climate which characterizes the setting in which these occur. It was pointed out that teacher education should functionally relate to what teaching is and under this premise Chapter IV was developed.

A dimensional view of teacher education as outlined above suggests that teacher education should be thought of as a process of socialization, as well as a program of training in keeping with national goals as is defined by the ruling government. With this in mind, the purpose of educating teachers becomes apparent.

Given the ideological view of teacher education, one must iden-

tify the data base upon which to build a teacher education program. Decisions stem from knowledge resulting from fields of inquiry; knowledge of children and development; knowledge of social philosophy; knowledge of institutions; knowledge of social processes; knowledge about education; and knowledge about teacher education (Spodek, 1974).

From the decisions, propositions and assumptions made about teacher education throughout the study, the following conclusions have been drawn:

1. Teacher education at all levels but especially at the early childhood level needs to be taken seriously.

2. All teaching requires an act of dedication.

3. An empirical data base is necessary to improve teacher education.

4. Feedback is an important factor.

5. Every teacher education goal can be achieved through a variety of sets of activities.

6. There should be room made for continued professional development to keep pace with new innovations.

Conclusions

In Guyana, the demand for teachers to work with young children makes it imperative to educate the teacher at the initial level in all the skills and understandings needed. Through programs of teacher education the more complicated skills and explanatory concepts and teaching principles can be acquired. A program of teacher education

for this purpose should be stocked with an ample supply of protocol materials that require a deeper and more penetrating analysis. The preparation of the teacher for working with preschool aged children must necessarily be adequate for effective teaching. The program should make accessible to the teacher the knowledge she will need in her career. The function of education of the teacher must therefore, serve two purposes in the area of subject matter and preparation. It should add depth and breadth to his knowledge and at the same time be informative. Programs of teacher education should make ample provision to obtain appropriate preparation.

The following set of questions which surround the issue of an effective teacher education program are designed to highlight what is crucial and necessary when planning a program for teacher education.

What should be the content of a teacher education program? Which content should be given first priority?

What approaches can be used to induce teachers to enroll in teacher education programs, particularly those already teaching young children?

Who should be selected as candidates for training?

Who should be the teacher training specialists?

What framework is necessary to encourage continuing education and upgrading?

What should be the content, methodology and design of the learning activities?

What types of support materials are needed to facilitate and implement training activity?

To what extent must the teacher education program develop in the teacher, depth of understanding in the following areas:

- knowledge of the sequence of human development;
- understanding of how people learn;
- knowledge about principles and methods;
- knowledge about his own area of specialization;
- skills for effective co-operation with peers, authority figures and lay public, as well as children?

Should the teacher be trained as a generalist or a specialist?

Should the training program acquaint the trainee with journals, newsletters, official publications, and organizations that offer assistance relevant to his work?

Should the teacher have a clear understanding of the ideals of socialism as practised in Guyana? Must she have a commitment to them?

All of the questions raised point back to what was described in Chapter II as the presage, process, and product elements that should be given initial consideration in the implementation of a program for teacher education.

Recommendations

This study was developed with the theoretical assumption that teachers of young children should be trained before embarking on a

career of teaching young children. In support of this view, Piaget states that teachers of young children ought to receive as much training as any other teacher. Since the concerns about the education of young children have just reached national interest (government control of nursery schools came into effect on September 13, 1976), it is expedient that the teachers of these children receive some form of professional training while the majority of them await completion of training at the institution level. Therefore, a program of inservice education (inservice as expressed here refers to an orientation program that is offered to personnel to assist them in understanding the program and auxiliary services to aid them in improving their skills) should be conducted to meet specific needs of personnel in the early childhood program. This inservice however, should be conducted when teachers are not too tired to be receptive, and the method of presentation should be varied to fit the interest and level of understanding of the personnel involved.

Inservice education can be conducted in a variety of ways of which only a few are described here.

1. Inschool workshops. This is operated in the school to provide help with specific problems which can be dealt with on an individual or group basis. It involves informal discussions between teachers and advisers (sometimes called supervisors) and a range of subject matters of immediate interest are looked into. While the advisers are responsible for setting up a work-room atmosphere,

organizing activities, planning the physical environment, and making best use of materials, opportunities are provided for the teachers to share various talents and ideas with the rest of the group. This procedure gives the teachers the opportunity to acquire new skills and techniques for use in the classroom. Besides working in individual schools, a group of nearby schools can be involved.

2. Day courses. The nature of these courses are designed principally to improve teaching of the new curriculum or content. It involves free exploration of apparatus and lecture. Careful selection of reference books and other written materials are used to assist teachers in finding new directions. These courses help the teacher to move from the familiar to the unfamiliar with the materials providing the starting points. Through investigations of increasing complexity using apparatus, they will grasp the idea of how best to motivate children.

3. Residential courses. Instruction in this type of training is provided by a diverse staff of early childhood educators. It involves working in groups with an approximate ratio of one staff member to five teachers. Much of the activities done, involve environmental work and discussions.

4. Staff meetings. Staff meetings become inservice sessions when the topic is educational and not administrative. All participants must feel involved. Such meetings include discussions, demonstrations, workshops, etc. It can be led by an outsider, the head teacher(prin-

cipal), or member of staff. At these meetings, principles can be defined and methods clarified.

These sessions are designed to give on-the-spot help to make teachers feel secure when working with children. As long as the trend is to provide flexible patterns of education, the demand is unlikely to slacken. Such procedures should be presented over an extended period of time and in a variety of ways. Regardless of the type of service provided, certain orientation techniques should be followed. See Appendix D for an example.

The total sequence of inservice learning activities should be organized as problem-solving efforts in which the teacher-learner takes the initiative for inquiry. The inservice education design must allow for and plan for individual differences in readiness, sophistication, focal concerns, and content needs. The major concern of learning designs must be to activate and link the cognitive, affective and action aspects of the individual.

The purpose of this study was to offer the guidance necessary for the decisions to be made regarding program designs and implementation for early childhood educators.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Akinpelu, J. A. The foundational studies in teacher education: Relevance reconsidered. The Journal of Educational Thought, 1975, 9(3), 192-201.

Allen, D. I. Teacher education - a shared responsibility. Paper presented at a Public Conference on Teacher Education, British Columbia, February 1974.

Allen, D., & Hawkes, G. Reconstruction of teacher education and professional growth programs. Phi Delta Kappan, 1970, 51, 4-12.

Allen, W. C., Cardy, L. V., & Drummond, W. H. Performance criteria for educational personnel department: a state approach to standards. Young Children, 1969, 20, 133-135.

Almy, M. The early childhood educator at work. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1975.

Anderson, R. H., & Shane, H. G. Implications of early childhood education for lifelong learning. In I. J. Gordon (Ed.), Early childhood education. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1972.

Ashby, G. F. Preschool theories and strategies. Victoria, Melbourne University Press, 1972.

Austin, Gilbert R. Early childhood education: An international perspective. New York, Academic Press, 1976.

Ausubel, D. P. Is there a discipline of Educational Psychology? Psychology in the Schools, 1969, 6, 232-244.

Baird, C. L. Education for development. Paper presented at the

fifteenth Annual Delegates Congress of The People's National Congress, Georgetown, Guyana, April 1972.

Baird, C. L. Government's responsibility for education. Unpublished manuscript, 1976. Available at the Ministry of Education, Social Development and Culture, Georgetown, Guyana.

Baker, H. S. Problems in teacher education. Paper presented at a seminar on Teacher Education and Certification, Ottawa, April 1966.

Bennett, A. C. Teacher education. Paper presented at a seminar on Teacher Education and Certification, Ottawa, April 1966.

Biddle, B. The integration of teacher effectiveness research. In B. Biddle & W. Ellena (Eds.), Contemporary research on teacher effectiveness. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964.

Bishop, L. J. Staff development and instructional improvement: Plans and procedures. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1976.

Bittel, N. Finding one's own methodology. Improving College and University Teaching, 1976, 24, 25-26.

Bloom, B. S. Stability and change in human characteristics. New York: Wiley, 1964.

Bloom, B. S. Taxonomy of educational objectives. New York: David McKay, 1956.

Blume, R. Humanizing teacher education. Phi Delta Kappan, 1971, 52.

Bowen, N. V. The family and the tasks of socialization. Unpublished manuscript, 1977 (a). Available at the Ministry of Education,

Social Development and Culture, Georgetown, Guyana.

Bowen, N. V. The role of the nursery school in Guyana. Unpublished manuscript, 1977 (b). Available from the Ministry of Education, Social Development and Culture, Georgetown, Guyana.

Bowen, N. V. The role of the teacher in the Guyana Nursery Education Program. Unpublished manuscript, 1977 (c). Available from the Ministry of Education, Social Development and Culture, Georgetown, Guyana.

Bowen, N. V. Understanding children's cognitive development. Unpublished manuscript, 1977 (d). Available from the Ministry of Education, Social Development and Culture, Georgetown, Guyana.

Broudy, H. S. Can we define good teaching? Kappa Delta Phi Record, 1969, 70, 583-92.

Broudy, H. S. The role of liberal arts in professional study. Journal of General Education, 1966, 18, 50-67.

Broudy, H. S. Criteria for the professional preparation of teachers. Journal of Teacher Education, 1965, 16, 408-45.

Broudy, H. S. Conant on the education of teachers. Educational Forum, 1964, 28, 199-210.

Burdin, J. L. Futurism as a focus in instructional planning. Journal of Teacher Education, 1973, 25, 141-149.

Bush, R. N. A schema for teacher education. In E. R. Smith (Ed.) Teacher education: A reappraisal. New York: Harper & Row, 1962.

Butler, A. L. Early childhood education: A perspective on basics.

Childhood education, 1973, 50, 21-25.

Butler, A. L. Areas of recent research in early childhood education. Childhood Education, 1971, 46, 143-147.

Butler, A. L. The child's right to quality day care. Childhood Education, 1970, 47, 59-64.

Butts, R. F. The liberal arts and professional education in the preparation of teachers: An international perspective. Educational Record, 1957, 40, 451-452.

Cartwright, W. H. The graduate education of teachers: Proposals for the future. Educational Record, 1959, 40, 148-154.

Channon, G. Innovations in teacher education in Canada. Ottawa, Canadian Teacher's Federation, 1971.

Chichester, J. Factors in teacher selection. Phi Delta Kappan, 1956, 37, 245-247.

Clarke, S. C. T. Designs for programs of teacher education. In B. O. Smith (Ed.) Research in teacher education: A symposium. New York: Harper & Row, 1972.

Clarke, S. C. T., & Kennedy, K. Teacher's evaluation of their preparation for teaching, Research Monograph No. 3 (Edmonton: A.T.A., 1962).

Colvin, R. W., & Zaffiro, E. M. (Eds.). Preschool education: A handbook for the training of early childhood educators. New York: Springer, 1974.

Combs, A. W. Some basic concepts for teacher education. Journal of

Teacher Education, 1972, 23, 286.

Combs, A. W. The professional education of teachers. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1965.

Combs, A., Blume, R., Newman, A. J., Wass, A. The professional education of teachers: A humanistic approach to teacher preparation. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1974.

Conant, J. B. The education of American teachers. New York: McGraw Hill, 1963.

Conway, J. Observation. Paper presented at a Public Conference on Teacher Education, British Columbia, February, 1974.

Cronbach, L. J., & Suppes, P. Research for tomorrow's schools. London: Macmillan, 1969.

Crowell, R., & Harring, R. An inservice education for the professional development of teachers: A heuristic model. California Journal of Educational Research, 1975, 26, 246-249.

Decker, C. A., & Decker, J. R. Planning and administering early childhood programs. Northwestern State University, Charles E. Merrill, 1976.

Denemark, G. W. Encouraging expertness through extending the period of professional preparation beyond four years. In Professional imperatives: Expertness and self-determination. National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, Washington, D.C., 1962.

Douglas, L. The commandments for cooperating teachers. In L.

Horton (Ed.), Teacher education: Trends, issues, and innovations. Illinois: The Interstate, 1974.

Edelfelt, R. A. Inservice education of teachers: Priority for the next decade. The Journal of Teacher Education, 1974, 25, 250-252.

Edwards, C. H., Getz, H. A., Lewis, F. G., Lorber, M. A., & Pierce, W. D. Planning, teaching and evaluating: A competency approach. Chicago, Nelson-Hall, 1977.

Eisner, E. W. Qualitative intelligence and the act of teaching. Elementary School Journal, 1963, 63, 299-307.

Elliott, D. L. Needed: A new early childhood educator. Educational Leadership, 1971, 28, 837.

Elvin, H. L. The role of the teacher in a changing society. In J. D. Turner & J. Rushton (Eds.), The teacher in a changing society. Manchester: Manchester University Press, 1974.

Flanders, N. Some relationships among teacher influence, pupil attitudes, and achievement. In B. Biddle & W. Ellena (Eds.), Contemporary research on teacher effectiveness. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1964.

Frey, S., & Ellis, J. Educational psychology and teaching: Opinions of experienced teachers. Teachers' College Journal, 1966, 38, 88-91.

Gage, N. L. Teacher effectiveness and teacher education: The search for a scientific basis. Palo Alto: Pacific Books, 1972.

Gage, N. L., Leavitt, G. S., & Stone, G. C. Teachers' understanding

of their pupils and pupils' ratings of their teachers. In N. L. Gage, (Ed.), Handbook of research on teaching. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1963.

Gagne, R. Contributions of learning to human development. Psychological Review, 1968, 75, 177-191.

Gardner, E. F. Tomorrow's graduate school of education. Syracruse: Syracruse University, 1958.

Gardner, H., & Henry, M. A. Designing effective internships in teacher education. Journal of Teacher Education, 1968, 19, 177-186.

Goheen, R. The teacher and the University. American Scientist, 1966, 65, 221-225.

Gore, L. L., & Koury, R. (Eds.). Educating children in nursery schools. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1964.

Gross, D. W. Teachers of young children need basic inner qualities. Young Children, 1967, 23, 107-110.

Grunelius, E. Early childhood education and the Waldorf school plan. New York: Waldorf School Monographs, 1974.

Haberman, M. Needed: New guidelines for teacher candidate selection. Journal of Teacher Education, 1974, 25, 234-235.

Heslett, F. E. Communication pragmatics of the lecture. Improving College and University Teaching, 1971, 19, 190-193.

Hews, D., & Hartman, B. Early childhood education: A workbook for administrators. San Francisco: R. & E. Research Associates, 1974.

Hewitt, S. The Colleges: Prospects and possibilities. In J. W. Tibble (Ed.), The future of teacher education. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1971.

Hilliard, F. H. (Ed.). Teaching the teachers: Trends in teacher education. London: George Allen & Unwin, 1971.

Hollins, T. B. Another look at teacher training. Leeds: Leeds University Press, 1971.

Honig, A. S., & Fears, L. M. Practicum. In W. Colvin and E. M. Zaffiro (Eds.), Preschool education: A handbook for the training of early childhood educators. New York: Springer, 1974.

Horton, L., & Horton, P. (Eds.). Teacher education: Trends, issues, innovations. Illinois, The Interstate, 1974.

Howard, A. E. Characteristics of early childhood teacher education: An analysis of ten exemplary programs. Washington: Association for Childhood Education International, 1968.

Hunter, M. Public education for four-year-olds: To be or not to be. Childhood Education, 1973, 403-407.

Jeffreys, M. V. C. Revolution in teacher training. London: Sir Isaac Pitman, 1961.

Johnson, D. Influence on teacher's acceptance of change. Elementary School Journal, 1969, 70, 142-153.

Jones, A. The education of young children. Unpublished manuscript, 1977 (a). Available from the Ministry of Education, Social Development and Culture. Georgetown, Guyana.

Jones, A. Rationale, goals and implications of teachers' workshops. Unpublished manuscript, 1977 (b). Available from the Ministry of Education, Social Development and Culture, Georgetown, Guyana.

Joyce, B. The teacher-innovator: A program for preparing educators. In B. Joyce (Ed.), Perspectives for reform in teacher education. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1972.

Katz, L. G. Issues and problems in teacher education. In B. Spodek (Ed.), Teacher Education. Washington, D.C., National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1974.

Katz, L. G. Humaneness in preschool. Illinois Teacher for Contemporary Roles, 1973, 16, 179-182.

Katz, L. G. Where is early childhood education going. Theory Into Practice, 1973, 12(2), 137-142.

Katz, L. G. Developmental stages of preschool teachers. Elementary School Journal, 1972, 73, 50-54.

Katz, L. G. Teaching in preschools: Roles and goals. Children, 1970, 17(2), 42-48.

Kleinman, Stanley. A guide for effective in-service education. Clearing House, 1974, 48, 372-74.

Koerner, J. Findings and prejudices in teacher education. School and Society, 1964, 92, 127-134.

Laska, J. A. Current progress in the foundations of education. The Record, 1969, 71, 179-186.

Leeper, S. H., Dales, R. J., Skipper, D. S., & Witherspoon, R. L.

Good schools for young children. New York: Macmillan, 1974.

Lewin, Kurt. Growing decision and social change. In T. M. Newcomb & E. L. Hartley (Eds.), Readings in social psychology. New York: Holt, 1947.

Lindsey, M. (Ed.). New horizons for the teaching profession. Washington, D. C.: National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, National Education Association, 1961.

Maddox, H. University teaching methods: A review. Universities Quarterly, 1970, 24, 157-165.

Marr, J., Plath, D. W., Wakely, J., & Wilkins, D. M. Contribution of the lecture to college teaching. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1960, 51, 277-284.

Miller, G. L., & O'Bruba, W. S. A survey of competencies needed for effective student teaching. College Student Journal, 1976, 13, 28-29.

Miller, R. I. Teacher education and preparation for the twenty-first century. School & Society, 1970, 98, 278-281.

Monroe, W. S. Teaching-learning theory and teacher education 1890-1950. New York: Greenwood Press, 1969.

Moore, R. S., & Moore, D. R. How early should they go to school? Childhood Education, 1973, 50, 14-20.

McGlothlin, W. J. Patterns of professional education. New York: Putnam's Sons, 1960.

McMurrin, M. Some basic issues in teacher education. In Professional imperatives: Expertness and self-determination. National Com-

mission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards. Washington, D.C., 1962.

Newsletter. Guyana Nursery Education Program, 1978, (No. 1).

Niblett, W. R., Humphreys, D. W., & Fairhurst, J. R. The university connection. NFER Publishing Co., 1975.

The objectives of teacher education. Windsor: NFER Publishing Co., 1973.

Oliver, J. The meaning and application of differentiated staffing in teaching. Educational Leadership, 1970, 32, 36-40.

Peck, R. F., & Tucker, J. A. Research on teacher education. In R. M. W. Travers (Ed.), The second handbook of research on teaching. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1973.

Peters, D. L., & Dorman, L. Program planning and program goals. In R. W. Colvin, and E. M. Zaffiro (Eds.), Preschool education. New York: Springer, 1974.

Peters, R. S. The place of philosophy in the training of teachers. In F. H. Hilliard (Ed.), Teaching the teachers: Trends in teacher education. London: George Allen, 1971.

Piaget, J. The genetic approach to the psychology of thought. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1961, 52, 275-281.

Prescott, D. A. The child in the educative process. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1957.

Problems seen by teacher educators. Ottawa: Canadian Teachers' Federation, 1966.

Pulliman, L. Lecture: Are we reviving discredited teaching methods? Phi Delta Kappan, 1963, 44, 382-385.

Report of the UNESCO Educational Survey Mission to British Guiana. March, 1963.

Rich, R. W. The teacher in a planned society. London: University of London Press, 1950.

Rohwer, W. Decisive research: A means for answering fundamental questions about instruction. Educational Researcher, 1972, 1:5-11.

Rohwer, W. D. Prime time for education: Early childhood or adolescence? Harvard Education Review, 1972, 41, 316-341.

Ross, A. M. Future patterns of teaching. In J. D. Turner and J. Rushton (Eds.), The teacher in a changing society. Manchester: Manchester University Press, 1974.

Ryan, K. (Ed.). Teacher education. Chicago: The National Society for the Study of Education, 1975.

Sameroff, A. Transactional models in early social relations. Human Development, 1975, 18, 65-79.

Sarason, S. B., Davidson, K. S., & Blatt, B. The preparation of teachers. London: Wiley, 1962.

Scheffler, I. University scholarship and the education of teachers. The Record, 1968, 70(1), 1-12.

Schoen, C. I. Recruiting and initial selection; II. Observation and practice teaching. Paper presented at a Public Conference on Teacher Education, British Columbia, February, 1974.

Seefeldt, C. Conclusion: Promises to keep. In C. Seefeldt (Ed.) Curriculum for the preschool primary child: A review of the research. Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1976.

Seefeldt, C. Who should teach young children? Journal of Teacher Education, 1973, 24(4), 308-311.

Shaplin, J. T., & Powell, A. G. A comparison of internship programs. Journal of Teacher Education, 1964, 15, 175-183.

Sharpe, D. M. Professional laboratory experiences. In D. P. Cottrell (Ed.), Teacher education for a free people. New York: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1956.

Silberman, C. E. Crisis in the classroom. New York: Vintage Books, 1971.

Silberman, C. E. The open classroom reader. New York: Random House, 1970.

Sinclair, W., & Picogna, J. L. How education students are selected? Clearing House, 1974, 48, 541-543.

Smith, B. O., Cohen, S. B., & Pearl, A. Teachers for the real world. Washington, D. C., The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1968.

Smith, C. E. Educational research and the preparation of teachers. Report prepared by British Columbia Teachers' Federation, 1962.

Spodek, B. Early childhood education and teacher education: A search for consistency. Young Children, 1974, 30, 168-173.

Spodek, B. (Ed.). Teacher education. Washington, D. C., National

Association for the Education of Young Children, 1974.

Spodek, B. Early childhood education. New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1973.

Spodek, B. Constructing a model for a teacher education program in early childhood education. Contemporary Education, 1969, 40, 145-149.

Stones, E., & Morris, S. Teaching practice: Problems and perspectives. London: Methuen, 1972.

Stovall, F. T. Classroom Methods: Lecture vs. Discussion. Phi Delta Kappan, 1958, 39, 255-258.

Taylor, W. Society and the education of teachers. Faber and Faber, 1969.

Taylor, B. L., Doyle, P. A., & Link, J. A. A more humane teacher education. Educational Leadership, 1971, 28, 698-700.

Tibble, J. W. The study of education. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1966.

Tom, A. R. Student teaching: First course in teacher education. Bloomington: Indiana University, 1976. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 128 300)

Travers, R. M. W. Empirically based teacher education. Educational Forum, 1975, 39, 417-433.

Trott, J. R. Lectures, lectures and the lectured. Improving College and University Teaching, 1963, 11, 72-75.

Turbeville, G. Is the college classroom an anachronism? Wisconsin

Journal of Education, 1964, 97, 13-15.

Turner, R. L. An overview in teacher education. In K. Ryan (Ed.), Teacher education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1975.

Verduin, J. R. Conceptual models in teacher education. Washington, D.C., The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1967.

Wallen, N. E., & Travers, R. M. W. Analysis and investigation of teaching methods. In N. L. Gage (Ed.), Handbook of research on teaching. Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1963.

Westby-Gibson, D. (Ed.). Social foundations of education. New York: The Free Press, 1967.

Weber, E. The function of early childhood education. Young Children, 1973, 28, 273.

Willis, D. E. Learning and teaching in methods courses: Current practice. Journal of Teacher Education, 1968, 19, 39-46.

Wilson, John. Educational theory and the preparation of teachers. NFER, 1975.

Yardley, A. The teacher of young children. London: Evans, 1971.

Yates, A. (Ed.). Current problems in teacher education. Belgium: UNESCO Institute for Education, 1970.

APPENDIX A

TEN COMMANDMENTS FOR COOPERATING TEACHERS

1. Thou shalt remember that thy student teacher is inexperienced and lacking in teaching aids with which to teach thy students unless thou shareth thine own with him.

2. Thy student teacher is frail and easily overburdened by too many classes assigned too soon, yet surely he needeth practice to grow in stature.

3. Thou shalt not attempt to mould thy fledgling in thy image, for he hath a personality different from thine.

4. Thou shalt not shame or reproach thy student teacher by saying, "Verily, thou didst not profit from thy campus disciplines as did my student teacher before thee, for he was richly blessed with initiative and imagination."

5. Thou shouldst hide the light of thy excellence under thy humility in order that the light from the student teacher should fill the classroom, for it is surely a blessing to train one whose skill excells thine own.

6. When thou commandeth thy student teacher saying, "Go forth and prepare a lesson plan for the morrow;" and he returneth forthwith, be not hasty in discarding the ideas therein lest he raise his voice in lamentation saying, "I am exceedingly sad and sorrowful for, lo, I am permitted no experimenting."

7. Thou should not always refuse when thy student teacher wishes to depart from thy established way, neither should thou remain steadfastly in thy room at all times, nor tarry in the teacher's lounge at great length.

8. When thou discovereth a weakness in thy student teacher, thou shalt confer with him privily to show him the error of his way while there is yet time for improvement.

9. When thy student teacher lags on his progress, thou shalt make him mindful of his slowness and show him how his stride may be lengthened and his pace quickened.

10. Thou shalt not use much flowery praise to lead thy student teacher to believe he doeth well and then cast him down with thy mark and thy recommendation.

(Douglas, 1974, p. 177)

APPENDIX B

METHODOLOGIES DISCUSSED

People do only what they would rather do (from Freud). That is, people behave according to choices they make from among alternatives they see available to them at the moment.

Learning has two aspects: (1) acquiring new information, and (2) discovering the personal meaning of that information. Information itself is useless. Only when individuals find the link between specific information and their own lives are they able to put it to use. This principle is not well understood by educators. Most of our efforts to improve education involve new ways to deliver information to people. Very few innovations involve helping learners to discover the personal meaning of that information.

It is more appropriate for people to learn a few concepts rather than many facts.

Learning is much more efficient if the learner first feels a need to know that which is to be learned. This principle has been known for a long time, but the response of educators to it has been to artificially "motivate" students with letter grades and other rewards. None of these schemes works as well as the genuine desire to learn, and in fact they frequently get in the way of that desire by substituting artificial for real motivation.

No one specific item of information, and no specific skill, is essential for effective teaching. Any one fact or skill that could be mentioned might be missing in a very effective teacher. Furthermore, it would be presumptuous for teacher educators in the 1070's, drawing on their experience in the 40's, 50's, and 60's, to declare certain teaching skills or knowledge essential for teachers in the 80's, and 90's, and beyond. We just don't know what the job of the teacher will be in 20 years, or even 10. Hopefully it will be quite different from what it is today.

People learn more easily and rapidly if they help make the important decisions about their learning.

People learn and grow more quickly if they aren't afraid to make mistakes. They can be creative only if they can risk making errors.

Objectivity is a valuable asset for a researcher, but it is not very useful for workers in the helping professions, such as teaching. What is needed instead is the opposite of objectivity--concern and caring. As Jack Frymier has said, we want students not only to know about cold, hard facts, but to have some "hot feelings about hard facts." We must produce teachers who have developed strong values

about teaching.

Teachers teach the way they have been taught--not the way they have been taught to teach. If we want elementary and secondary teachers to be warm, friendly people who relate positively and openly with their students, then we must treat them that way in our college programs. We must respect our teacher education students if we expect them to respect their pupils.

Pressure on students produces negative behaviors, such as cheating, avoidance, fearfulness, and psychosomatic illness. Students tend to become more closed in their interpersonal relationships when they are pressured.

Our teachers would be more effective if they were self-actualizers. Teachers ideally should be more healthy than "normal" people. They should be creative, self-motivated, well-liked persons.

(Combs et al., 1974)

APPENDIX C

CHARACTERISTICS OF AN EFFECTIVE TEACHER

Likes and respects young children.

Enjoys working with children and their parents.

Maintains warm, friendly relationships with children and parents.

Is calm, sensitive, thoughtful of others, and has a genuine sense of humor.

Understands how young children grow, think, behave, and learn.

Values each phase of the child's growth and accepts him where he is in his development.

Is sensitive to the growth and learning needs of the individual child and helps him move forward according to his own rate and level of development.

Values the process of learning through which children develop independence, resourcefulness, creativity, responsibility, and the ability to solve problems.

Maintains warm relationships with other members of the staff, thus fostering a healthy emotional environment for children and their parents.

Is skilled in observing children; watches and listens for clues to their needs and understandings, a habit which characterizes her entire approach to learning; supports and extends children's efforts, answering questions and guiding play so that it challenges their capacities according to their readiness for certain kinds of experiences; and plans and modifies the program according to the needs of an individual child and the group.

Keeps cumulative records of significant aspects of the child's development which are helpful to those persons who are responsible for continuing his guidance.

Recognizes children who are excessively shy and timid, those who are aggressive and belligerent, those whose nutrition is poor, those who have serious defects, and those whose cultural background is limited or different; seeks professional assistance and makes suitable provisions for them.

Exerts the kind of guidance, at times direct, which helps the child toward increasing self-direction and self-control.

Knows and makes use of the resources of the community, both human and material, in providing rich learning experiences for children.

Appreciates the importance of parent-child relationships as crucial to the child's growth and of parent-school relationships.

(Gore & Koury, 1964)

APPENDIX D

ORIENTATION AND IN-SERVICE EDUCATION PRACTISES

Other methods used in improving personnel qualifications are orientation and in-service education. An adequate orientation program is essential for all personnel. Formal orientation procedures vary from program to program. In some programs, the orientation is a short conference with the director and a tour of the facility; in other programs, the orientation procedures, consisting of individual conferences, group meetings, and written materials, are continued for a period of a year or even longer.

Although orientation procedures should fit the needs of the personnel in a program, there are several desirable features of all good orientation programs.

1. Beginning the orientation procedure with a social event in which the staff members are introduced to other personnel (and perhaps to parents) sets the mood for cordial relationships.

2. Explanations should be given to all personnel concerning the program's philosophy and goals, the general organization structure, and the clientele served.

3. Written information should include the employee's job description, organizational structure with names of personnel included, information on any procedure which the employee might need in the near future (e.g., accident or fire procedures and securing office supplies or audiovisual equipment), and information on the day-to-day operation of the program (e.g., work hours and special duties). Conversely, the employee should not be burdened with information he will need in the more distant future (e.g., end of school reports).

4. Demonstration teaching, observation of other teachers, and workshops or seminars on particular methods or materials used by the program are helpful even to veteran teachers.

5. Orientation procedures should permit employees to ask questions as well as receive information.

(Decker and Decker, 1976, p. 49)